

# The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXIX, NUMBER 3

*Continuing The Historical Outlook*

MARCH, 1948

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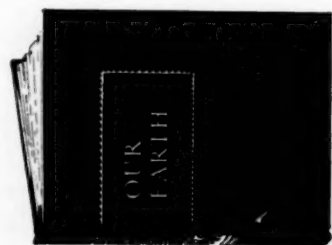
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EDITORIAL AND BUSINESS OFFICE: 809-811 North 19th Street, Philadelphia 30, Pa.

Subscription \$2.00 a year, single numbers 30 cents a copy.

Published monthly, from October to May inclusive, by McKinley Publishing Co., 809-811 North 19th St., Philadelphia, Pa.

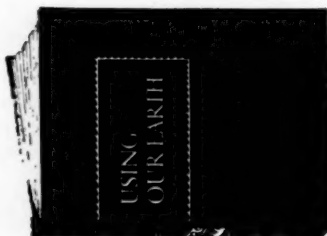
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# The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXIX, NUMBER 3

MARCH, 1948

## Democracy and the People's Peace

R. E. SWINDLER

*University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia*

This subject has been chosen deliberately, because of its deep significance, both historically and in application to our contemporary world. Its two elements, in their true nature and analysis, are: (1) the people's government, *i.e.*, representative democracy, which is the basis for our American way of life; and (2) the peace that the people want, are entitled to, and which again and again, when threatened, they have dared to defend, with their "lives, their fortunes and their sacred honor." Thus, it is the *people's government* in relation to the *people's peace* which concerns us most.

In illustrating the tremendous importance of this concept and philosophy of government and society, perhaps no statement could be more appropriate and meaningful than the following from one who did so much to defend and preserve our federal Union as "one and inseparable":

Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now, we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. . . . It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain, and that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people,

for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

Then perhaps, when we have echoed, from our hearts, such sentiments and convictions as these, we may more fittingly and sincerely stand at salute and repeat, "I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States, and to the republic for which it stands, one nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all."

Such salutes we do give in the schools, and on many other occasions, it is true; but the meaning of it all must come home to us, with appropriate faith and reverence, if the people's government and the people's peace are to endure.

But, in contrast to the peoples' government and the peoples' peace, what have we had, from time immemorial? We have had, until very recent times, government of the people by the opulent few, for this privileged few; or government of the people by the autocratic monarch or military dictator, for himself and such worldly princes and their minions as gather about him; or government of the masses by the conniving classes; or attempt at government by an incoherent mob, which destroyed the existing order, but in itself could not restore respect for law and order, nor the damage done by violent revolution. Indeed, throughout the long history of the human race the "forgotten man" has been the "common man." In contrast to this, the concept of representative democracy, as well as the faith of Christianity, exalts the common man, for it wraps him with dignity and clothes him in honor, while at the same time it bars neither the rights of the

classes nor those of the masses. This, of course, means freedom and opportunity for all. Hence our faith in democracy.

Summed up, this situation signifies, in relation to war and peace, that the privileged few, or the classes, have been responsible for war, while the masses of the people have suffered and sacrificed most. Yet, the people's peace has not been realized nor their lot made better, by and large, by wars between nations and peoples.

We have a right, therefore, to draw this distinction between the classes and the masses in relation to war—its causes, its nature and its results. Wars have been the tools and the luxurious rewards of the high and mighty, of the favored and selfish, of the manipulators of the destinies of their fellowmen. Throughout the annals of time, the profits of war have come mainly to the few directing individuals and groups, who have been able to grow fat as they supplied the means and the men for waging war—pirates and parasites all too often they were—and who basked in luxury on the wealth created by the sweat of other men's brows.

Such has been the nature of war, and such has been the manipulation in the intervals of peace between wars, in preparation for succeeding conflicts to come. Only recently have the principles of Christianity and of the democratic way of life begun to change the pattern and role of war in man's civilization. Yet, in spite of this growing pressure under liberal governments—this growing pressure of the masses, who are becoming more informed and articulate—war itself is ever becoming more and more destructive, cruel and profitless.

How long will this be suffered to exist? And why does it have to be, at all, with science contributing so mightily to the destruction?

That science may discover or demonstrate one truth and be wholly ignorant and misleading on another kind of truth is well illustrated in the following case. A little over a generation ago no less a scientist and scholar than David Starr Jordan, with the greatest assurance, proclaimed to America and to the world: "There can never be another great world war"! Yet, scarcely had these words escaped from the lips of the venerable educator when the greatest war that had ever cursed the human race up to that time, was shaking the very foundations of

the world's civilization, and threatening its spiritual as well as its material values.

Likewise, in 1917-1918, Americans, as well as liberty-loving believers in democracy the world over, were firm and sincere in their belief that they were fighting a war "to end war, and to make the world safe for democracy." It seems now as if they were fighting a war and concluding a peace that was destined to make the world safe for everything else but democracy, at least for experimentation, for generations to come.

In those strenuous and idealistic days of World War I our hearts swelled with pride and joy to know that our country was looked upon as the hope of the world. We were weighted down with the sense of responsibility and the challenge to be the political, moral and spiritual leaders of a new world—to be speedily built on the ruins of the old.

And so, precisely because of these beliefs and earnest desires—not because of the facts in the case—we were content to think that such ideals and reforms, national and world-wide, were natural, and bound to come. We were telling our youth that to be asleep to the real need for, and the vital test of, democracy in that time, was to be playing with our destiny as a free people. And we had faith that those ideals of *the people's government and the people's peace* would be realized.

On the contrary, however, at the very time that these pious, worthy motives and ideals were being held forth, President Wilson was being compelled to yield to the old diplomacy and international trickery at the peace conference; and, through the force of secret treaties and conflicting selfish interests and greed, Wilson's "fourteen points" were being betrayed in the house of their friends. Likewise, all over the world, an era of crime, lawlessness, selfishness, graft and betrayal of the people's trust, ran riot as a concomitant, if not a direct, result of this very period of idealism. Now, at the end of another and greater world war, we see the same evil results, in even a greater degree.

Well may the first half of the twentieth century be called the supremely tragic era! While it is proving to be the most costly of all eras in the misuse and sacrifice of wealth and human life, so it may go down in history as supreme in lost ideals and blasted hopes of the



human race. Why did such a disillusionment have to come? This is a practical question to which far too little attention has been given in our generation. That is why it is so deeply tragic at this time.

In such an hour, when the dove of peace is wounded nigh unto death, may that little candle of Woodrow Wilson's faith in democracy shed its beams in the darkness "as does a good deed in a wicked world." And may we wake up, and demonstrate more realistically the heritage he left us, of faith in a people's government and a people's peace!

Let us remember that with real conviction and sincerity Wilson proclaimed to the world in 1917:

We have no quarrel with the German people. We have no feeling toward them but one of sympathy and friendship. It was not upon their impulse that their government acted in entering this war. It was not with their previous knowledge and approval. It was determined upon as wars used to be when peoples were nowhere consulted by their rulers, and wars were provoked and waged in the interests of ambitious men who were accustomed to use their fellowmen as pawns and tools. Self-governing nations do not fill their neighbor states with spies, or set their course of intrigue to bring about some critical posture which will give them an opportunity to strike and make conquest.

Let us note also that wars do not come alone from aggressor individuals and groups. Just as often they recur from the guilt and mistakes of those who make the peace; as witness the case of World War I: We won the war, but we lost the peace. To give emphasis to this point, let me paraphrase a statement of Raymond Swing in his radio broadcast on Christmas Eve, 1942, in the early stages of World

War II. I cannot recall his exact words; but they are to this effect:

War is not caused by "evil men" alone (as the leaders of the Axis today), but has come largely through failure in making the peace after World War I. Unless we realize this, there is no hope for peace in the future, and another great war is certain to come. We must do something to remove the conditions which made it possible for Mussolini, Hitler and the Jap militarists to bring on this war. Nations must limit their independence to the extent that . . . peace may come by compromise—not between good and evil—but between one good and another, or between different views and conceptions of good. Study, discussion and compromise are absolutely necessary to the making of a lasting peace. The talent and genius of our "founding fathers" and all that has developed and made America great must be applied to the problem of making a peace which will endure. Thus, only may intelligence enlighten liberty, that liberty may enlighten the world.

In summary, I shall repeat the opening sentence of the UNESCO charter, which reads: "Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be built." The UNESCO Charter proposes to promote peace and security through international cooperation and diffusion of information and development of international understanding and good will. It encourages voluntary non-governmental organizations concerned with the various international aspects of education. It promotes the idea of equality of educational opportunity and suggests ways of preparing all youth for their responsibilities. But, a caution here is, that *we must take youth into our confidence and plans*, and cooperate with them; for they have demonstrated throughout the war period that they can and will plan and cooperate with us.

# Teaching the Report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights

SAUL ISRAEL

*Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, New York*

One of the most far-reaching reports ever published is that issued recently by the President's Committee on Civil Rights under the chairmanship of Charles E. Wilson. Though there may be a difference of opinion about the conclusions and recommendations of the *Report*, few thoughtful teachers will not be disturbed by some of the serious social problems which are portrayed in the study.

The following is a teaching guide which has been used by social studies teachers in Erasmus Hall High School. Some 1,500 copies of the Wilson report were secured from the New York newspaper *PM* at a nominal price and were used as source data for the lessons.

## FACTUAL OUTLINE OF REPORT

### I. *The Essential Rights*

1. The right to safety and security of the person
2. The right to citizenship and its privileges
3. The right to freedom of conscience and expression
4. The right to equality of opportunity

### II. *The Record: Short of the Goal*

The condition of our rights

1. The right to safety and security of the person
  - a. The crime of lynching—failure to punish offenders
  - b. Police misconduct
    - (1) Failure to protect persons against mob injury
    - (2) The third degree
    - (3) Unrepresentative juries
  - c. The wartime evacuation of Japanese Americans
2. The right to citizenship and its privileges
  - a. Citizenship and race
  - b. Citizenship and our colonies
  - c. Limitations on the right to vote
    - (1) White primary
    - (2) Literacy tests
    - (3) Poll tax
    - (4) Intimidation

- (5) Treatment of Indians
  - d. The armed services and discrimination
3. The right to freedom of conscience and expression
  - a. Communism and fascism
  - b. Civil rights and federal employees
  - c. Problem of totalitarian propaganda
4. The right to equality of opportunity
  - a. The right to employment
    - (1) Discriminatory hiring practices
    - (2) On the job discrimination
    - (3) Efforts to improve the situation
      - (a) FEPC
      - (b) Ives-Quinn Law in New York State
  - b. The right to education
    - (1) The segregated school
    - (2) Discriminatory admission practices
  - c. The right to housing—restrictive covenants
  - d. The right to health services
  - e. The right to public services and accommodations
  - f. Civil rights in Washington, D. C.

### III. *Government's Responsibility: Securing the Rights*

1. Constitutional basis (this can be taught in connection with the Bill of Rights in American history)
  - a. Power to protect the right to vote—Constitution, Art. I, Sec. 4; 14th, 15th, 19th amendments
  - b. Power to protect the right to freedom from slavery — Constitution, 13th amendment
  - c. Power to protect rights to fair legal process, to free speech and assembly and to equal protection of the laws—Constitution, 14th amendment
  - d. War power—Constitution, Art. I, Sec. 8
  - e. Interstate commerce — Constitution, Art. I, Sec. 8
  - f. Taxing and spending powers—Constitution, Art. I, Sec. 8

- g. Postal power—Constitution, Art. I, Sec. 8
- h. Power over D. C. and territories—Constitution, Art. I, Sec. 8; Art. IV, Sec. 3
- i. Power derived from the Constitution as a whole
- j. Power derived from treaty clause—Constitution, Art. II, Sec. II; UN Charter
- k. Republican form of government—Constitution, Art. IV, Sec. 4
- 2. Role of Supreme Court
- 3. Civil rights section of the Department of Justice
- 4. The problem of the climate of opinion (excellent section)
- IV. *A Program of Action: the Committee's Recommendations*
- 1. Reasons
  - a. Moral
  - b. Economic
  - c. International
- 2. Some governmental sanctions to safeguard civil rights
  - a. Criminal penalties
  - b. Civil remedies
  - c. Administrative orders
  - d. Withholding grants-in-aid
  - e. Disclosure
  - f. Additional legislation

#### *Suggested Activities For Class*

##### I. Quotations from the *Report* for discussion.

"I am going to read and study this report with great care and I recommend to all my countrymen that they do the same."—*President Truman*)

"The central theme in our American heritage is the importance of the individual person."

"We abhor the totalitarian arrogance which makes one man say that he will respect another man as his equal only if he has 'my race, my religion, my political views, my social position'."

"Freedom, however, as we now use the term, means even more than the traditional 'freedoms' listed in our Bill of Rights—important as they are."

"The threat of lynching always hangs over the head of the Southern Negro; the knowledge that a misinterpreted word or action can lead to his death is a dreadful burden."

"In a recent case in the Department of Justice files, a Negro school teacher was disquali-

fied under a North Carolina provision requiring an ability to read and interpret the Constitution."

"In the Presidential elections of 1944, ten per cent of the potential voters voted in the seven poll-tax states, as against 49 per cent in the free-vote states."

"The most immediate threat to the right of freedom of opinion and expression is indirect. It comes from efforts to deal with those few people in our midst who would destroy our democracy."

"Discrimination in employment damages lives, both the bodies and the minds of those discriminated against and those who discriminate."

"The public cannot long tolerate practices by private educational institutions which are in serious conflict with patterns of democratic life."

"Equality of opportunity to rent or buy a home should exist for every American."

"Public parks, beaches, and playgrounds are generally closed to Negroes in the South, and on rare occasion when substitutes are offered they are inferior."

"The closer white infantrymen had been to the actual experience of working with Negroes in combat units the more willing they were to accept integrated Negro platoons in white companies as a good idea for the future."

"The District of Columbia should symbolize to our own citizens and to the people of all countries our great traditions of civil liberty. Instead it is a graphic illustration of a failure of democracy."

"The Committee rejects the argument that government controls are themselves necessarily threats to liberty."

"We must make constructive efforts to create an appropriate national outlook—a climate of public opinion which will outlaw individual abridgments of personal freedom, a climate of opinion as free from prejudice as we make it."

##### II. Study the *Charts* and maps in the *Report*. What do they indicate?

##### III. Arrange for forums, panels or round tables dealing with specific sections of the report. Among such might be:

*Forum A*—How can we protect the right to safety and security of person?

Problems 1. How can we prevent lynching?



2. How can we provide for fair police treatment of offenders?
3. How can we make sure our juries are fair?

*Forum B*—How can we protect the right to citizenship and privileges?

- Problems
1. How can we protect the Negroes' right to vote?
  2. How can we safeguard the liberties of Oriental Americans? of Indians? of Puerto Ricans?
  3. How can the armed forces promote democracy?

*Forum C*—How can we protect the right to freedom of conscience and expression?

- Problems
1. How can we protect the civil rights of federal employees?
  2. How much free speech shall be allowed Communists and Fascists?
  3. What shall we do about the spreading of hate propaganda through the mail?
  4. How can Congressional Committees develop fair procedures?

*Forum D*—How can we protect the right to equality of opportunity?

- Problems
1. Is the Ives-Quinn law in New York State a success?
  2. Do we need a new federal FEPC?
  3. What shall we do about discrimination in higher education?
  4. How can improved economic conditions alleviate tensions?

5. How can people learn the evil effects of prejudice?

IV. See the following films: "Oxbow Incident," "Black Fury," "Crossfire," "Gentlemen's Agreement." What social problems are portrayed here?

V. Bright students might make reports on these recent cases affecting civil liberties:

- Near *vs.* Minnesota—free press  
 Thomas *vs.* Collins—free speech  
 West Virginia State Board of Education *vs.* Barnette—free religion  
 Chambers *vs.* Florida—the third degree  
 Norris *vs.* Alabama—fair juries  
 Smith *vs.* Allright—white primaries

These can be found condensed in *Leading Constitutional Decisions*, by R. E. Cushman (New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1947).

VI. Some useful references are:

*Public Affairs Pamphlets*:

- No. 43—Cushman, R. E., *Safeguarding our Civil Liberties*  
 No. 85—Benedict, R. and Weltfish, G., *Races of Mankind*  
 No. 95—Stewart, M. S., *The Negro in America*

Town Hall Bulletin, Vol. 13, No. 24, *What Can We Do to Improve Race and Religious Relationships in America?*

Swisher, C. B., *American Constitutional Development* (New York: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1943).

## Progressive Practices in Sociology Teaching

J. POPE DYER

Central High School, Chattanooga, Tennessee

This is a day of progressive instruction, progressive supervision and progressive administration. Every teacher should be reading about, and visiting, institutions where progressive instructional practices prevail.

I am aware of the value of a textbook as a basis of instruction. I am also aware that the progressive instructor will not be a slave to any method or practice. Growth comes to the individual student and teacher in the freedom

to explore new methods of learning and teaching; in the final analysis, this constitutes the highest type of freedom in education.

All teachers today go beyond the textbook. They use reports of the latest findings, select speakers who are specialists to come to the class to enrich the work when a specific topic is being studied, whether it is race relations, education, juvenile delinquency, crime or religion. I cannot think of any progressive in-



structor who would fail to use appropriate visual aids to enrich a problem or subject.

The day has come when the student must be trained to do more than get a great fund of factual information. He must be trained to contribute or use this learning. In other words, he must be trained to serve the community, and state. By serving, he gets the joy of using his learning. By serving, he grows greatly, both directly and incidentally. One of the most progressive and effective means of using information is through the Youth Community Forums.

Last year, many students of the sociology classes of our school assisted in starting, in our community, a series of Youth Community Forums. The Hi-Y Club of the school did much to give the leadership, and since many of the students belonged to both the club and the classes, the two worked together cooperatively. The three forums last year dealt with timely topics in which students took a keen interest by actively participating. The subjects were race relations, war and peace, and employer-employee relationships.

The best leaders in our community were enlisted in helping to make the Youth Community Forums a success. For example, in the forum on war and peace, the president of the University of Chattanooga, a rabbi, and a minister of a leading church spoke about five minutes each to give their points of view; a highly selected group of students, which had been carefully trained, served on the panel to answer questions from the audience, made up exclusively of youth from our city high schools. The same progressive practice characterized all the other forums.

The outcomes of the work far exceeded our fondest expectations. The school and community publicity was extensive: the participation of the youth of our city was very satisfying, and the expression by community leaders convinced us that they were exceedingly favorably impressed.

This year a local radio station has invited us to expand these Youth Community Forums. They have asked for as many as we will sponsor. They enthusiastically and spontaneously suggested that one of their best announcers be allowed to serve as moderator. We are going to give five this year and all will be broad-

cast over the WAPO station of Chattanooga. Dates are soon to be set for the broadcasts. We feel that this agency causes the students to grow, and to contribute a progressive and wholesome opinion on vital problems that are local, national and international in scope.

Since these Youth Community Forums are still in the neophyte stage, we cannot state with absolute certainty that they constitute the most progressive method, but we do feel that they are a step in the direction of progressiveness. Experimental factors cannot speak strongly until results can be properly evaluated and measured. I do know that the students, leaders and citizens are keenly interested and take their work seriously.

Another progressive practice which has promoted a great amount of interest is extensive cooperative studies or research. I recall two or three studies made during last year which were outstandingly interesting. The students eagerly participated in them.

One was a study of education in the South. The students first learned, from well-known studies, the status of Southern education. They discovered some of the best Southern leaders and wrote to them for opinions and ways of improving the educational conditions in the South. The response to the letters by the distinguished Southern leaders was surprising. The letters taught the students a great deal about what these men were thinking, especially about their ideas for educational improvement and the ways to finance certain suggested plans. The students wanted to keep the letters; they compiled data, charts and articles, and made a scrapbook which contained all the collected material. The scrapbook will be used effectively by the sociology classes this year. Several valuable articles were written for newspapers and magazines based on this study.

Learning must be definite but realistic. It must be useful and contributing. It must be a joy to the learner and a service to the community, state and nation.

These practices, briefly described here, will do much to augment the program of the progressive instructor. Most teachers will do more—even the mediocre will not want to do less. If we are progressive, we will try the new and will go forward; if we are backward we deserve much criticism.

# Washington and Jefferson's Contemporaries

JOHN P. DIX

East High School, Kansas City, Missouri

The latter part of the eighteenth century and the early nineteenth century included the period of independence, the creation of the Constitution, the organization of the American Republic, and the launching of the new government in New York, Philadelphia, and Washington. Foreign affairs and problems also received the attention of American leaders.

After the War of 1812, *Nationalism* was emphasized. Americans began to consider themselves as a nation. Domestic affairs within the country were stressed. The power and financial credit of the national government were established. Such internal improvements as roads and canals were demanded, at either state or federal expense. A high tariff was desired by the North and the manufacturing interests, for the protection of infant industries. The Western Movement and territorial development furthered the achievement of *Nationalism*.

*Sectionalism* led to disagreements and even to disunity. The South favored a low tariff for revenue rather than protection, internal improvements at state expense, less power by the federal government (States' Rights), and the right of a state to refuse to accept a national law (*Nullification*). Thus, such economic interests as manufacturing in the North, and agriculture in the South, were upsetting the cause of union, a conflict which finally led to the Civil War of 1861 to 1865.

Washington and Jefferson's *America* was much different from the America of today. We must know, recognize, and understand these differences in order to appreciate the great progress made in the United States under the guidance of its leaders and through the devotion and efforts of its people. In 1790, the United States had four million people, three per cent of whom lived in Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Charleston, Baltimore, and Salem. More than half of the 900,000 square miles was occupied by the Indians. Ninety per cent of the people lived on farms and most were poor.

They were religious, patriotic, and intelligent. There were thirteen states.

*Early Nineteenth Century America.* Before the American Revolution, Daniel Boone led a group of settlers into Kentucky from Virginia. In the years that followed, more than a million people went over the mountains to settle the West. The states of Kentucky (1792) and Tennessee (1796) were formed. Ohio (1802), Indiana (1800), Michigan (1805), and Illinois (1809) were established on the Western frontier in the so-called Northwest Territory, above the Ohio River and west of the Mississippi.

The Louisiana Purchase of 1803—during Jefferson's administration—doubled the area of the United States, extending it from the mouth of the Mississippi to the Rockies and Canada, and making possible the later creation of the following states and parts of states: Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota, Oklahoma, Montana, Minnesota, Wyoming, and Colorado. By 1805, our population had increased to approximately six million and our number of states to seventeen. In 1820, America had about nine and a half million people and twenty-three states.

Today's America includes over one hundred and forty million people, forty-eight states, and foreign possessions. A few far-sighted, courageous leaders such as Daniel Boone, Thomas Jefferson, Robert Livingstone, James Monroe, and others, achieved land for a public domain which has been—and is—fundamental to the development and progress of America. More than half of our people live in large cities and in urban communities today, which is a striking difference to America of the late 1700's and early 1800's, which was largely rural, and agricultural. Modern America is industrial to a great extent. The tendency for people to leave the farm and go to the city has caused many problems and has changed our country and our ways of living.

*Leading Contemporaries, Washington to Jackson (1775-1829).* The leadership of Wash-

ington, Jefferson, and our other Presidents was strengthened by the presence and influence of capable and consecrated men and women who lived and sacrificed in eighteenth and nineteenth century America. Our Chief Executives conferred with their contemporaries, listened to them, and often followed them. A number of these contemporary Americans served their government and country as Presidents, Vice-Presidents, Secretaries of State, cabinet members, Congressmen, foreign ministers, legislators, governors, and delegates to various meetings and conferences. Their mothers, wives, sisters, and sweethearts encouraged and supported them. Their private lives and personal achievements and talents were often exemplary.

Martha Washington, Abigail Adams, and Dolly Madison influenced their famous husbands. Girl students of American history may be interested in reading of their lives and achievements. Textbooks tend to ignore the importance and leadership of American women in the development of their country. The influence of women has been outstanding in a country which has given them increased freedom and rights, in what has been to a great extent a man's world.

Think of the ability of such contemporary founders of the American Republic as: Franklin (1706-1790), Washington (1732-1799), Jefferson (1743-1826), John Adams (1735-1826), Hamilton (1757-1804), Madison (1751-1836), Monroe (1758-1831), Marshall (1755-1835), and John Quincy Adams (1767-1848). *Washington, John Adams, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and John Quincy Adams* served as Presidents of the United States in that order, from 1789 to 1829, when Jackson became the seventh President.

Other contemporaries include: Samuel Adams, Edmund Randolph, Aaron Burr, Henry Knox, John Jay, Patrick Henry, Richard Henry Lee, Charles Pinkney, Samuel Chase, John Breckinridge, Albert Gallatin, DeWitt Clinton, John Randolph, Robert R. Livingstone, Meriwether Lewis, William Clark, George Rogers Clark, Thomas Pinkney, Thomas Paine, and James Otis. And there were others. A student of American history would find that a study of any of these leading persons would be interesting and revealing. One should be able to

identify each of these leaders by stating in a paragraph: his native state, his characteristics, his achievements, his official capacities, and his biographical mileposts.

*John Adams (1735-1826), Second President of the United States.* Unlike Washington (First President, 1789-1797) and Jefferson (Third President, 1801-1809), John Adams, who served as our second President, was elected for only one term, 1797 to 1801. He faced many difficulties at home and abroad. His policy was that of neutrality toward England and France, which were at war and insisted upon the right of seizure of our ships. The "XYZ Affair," in which the French officials demanded a bribe, caused unfavorable reaction. "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute," became the popular cry. Washington was called back as Commander of the army, and the Navy Department was created in 1798. Adams made a deal for peace with Talleyrand, France's foreign minister, but his independent action made him very unpopular.

The Alien and Sedition Laws were passed during John Adam's administration. By these acts, President Adams could deport aliens. They restricted the naturalization of immigrants, and they provided punishment for anyone who criticized the government and its leaders. New immigrants and Jeffersonian Republicans could be controlled by the Federalist administration under these laws. Vice-President Thomas Jefferson drew up the Kentucky Resolutions, and James Madison the Virginia Resolutions. These Virginia-Kentucky Resolutions stated that the Alien and Sedition Acts were contrary to the Constitution, especially the freedom of speech and petition. The Resolutions also declared that such laws could be *null* and *void*. That meant that the states might refuse to accept a Federal law. Thus, the doctrines of *States' Rights*, *Nullification*, and even *Secession*, which flared before and during the Civil War, had their beginning.

John Adams, who was the cousin of Samuel Adams (revolutionary agitator, writer, and organizer), served as a member of the Massachusetts legislature, foreign minister and peace commissioner to France and England, and Vice-President under Washington for his two terms. He was a member of the First and Second Continental Congresses, and moved that Wash-



ington be made the Commander-in-Chief of the Continental Army. Adams also moved that Jefferson write the Declaration of Independence. He himself was on the committee that drafted the document.

Adams' leadership in the Revolutionary period was demonstrated in his opposition to the Stamp Act and the tea tax. This statement describes some of his Revolutionary activities: "I was incessantly employed through the whole fall, winter, and spring of 1775 and 1776, in Congress during their sittings, and on committees in the mornings and evenings, and unquestionably did more business than any other member of the house." He seconded Richard Henry Lee's motion, that "these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States." (June 7, 1776) His defense of the Declaration of Independence was noteworthy.

His achievement as a diplomat was superior in France, Holland, and England. He accomplished important treaty provisions. On the other hand, he was too independent in his dealings with the English. Adams helped to write the Massachusetts Constitution and Bill of Rights. He favored Hamilton's financial program, but he did not like Hamilton. He became a friend of Jefferson's, but Adams did not favor Jeffersonian Democracy.

John Adams, however, was unpopular because of his temper, jealousy, and apparent coldness. He was disappointed in his defeat by Jefferson in 1800, and disturbed by his unpopularity with the people. His own party members were not solidly behind him. The "XYZ Affair," Adams' approval of Napoleon's offer of conciliation, and the passing of the Alien and Sedition Acts over his opposition, reduced his popularity and standing.

He was the only President whose son (John Quincy Adams) also became President. Abigail Adams, his wife and devoted companion, was one of the outstanding women in America's history. In fact, the entire Adams family was one of the most influential families in the development of our nation. *Adams House* in Quincy, Massachusetts, is a national shrine, where there are many evidences of the leadership of this remarkable family.

His shortcomings included a tendency to act hastily, a vain and an egotistical nature, and a hot temper. In appearance, he was short and stout. Adams spoke courageously for independence, liberty, and the Constitution. But he did not trust democracy and the common people, at a time when Jeffersonian Democracy was emerging. John Adams was an outstanding lawyer, a capable diplomat, and a devoted father and husband. After his presidency, he retired to private life, a sad and embittered man, but the rise of his son to power gave him much satisfaction.

Adams considered the office of Vice-President insignificant. He wrote to his wife, "My country has in its wisdom contrived for me the most insignificant office that ever the invention of man contrived or his imagination conceived." (He had served eight years as Washington's Vice-President). John Adams lived to be 90 years of age. He forgot his political differences with Jefferson, and they enjoyed each other's friendship in the latter years of their lives.

*James Madison* (1751-1836), *Fourth President of the United States*. Like Washington and Jefferson, James Madison served as President for two terms, 1809-1817. Following his friend, Thomas Jefferson, as President, he faced problems of maintaining our rights as a neutral in the war between England and France. Neither Jefferson as President, nor Madison as his Secretary of State, had been able to achieve successful negotiations. Both England and France disrespected our commercial rights. England impressed our seamen. The Embargo Act and its repeal, and the Nonintercourse Acts failed to eliminate violations of neutrality.

Madison assumed the presidency under the shadow of war. Attempts at "peaceful coercion," the use of force through the economic boycott and refusal to trade with England and France, caused more hardship to America than to those countries. Madison could not bring either England or France to terms. The belief that the British were stirring up the Indians against the United States was another cause for ultimate war with England. Tecumseh, the Shawnee chief, attempted to organize the Indians in order to drive the white men back of the Appalachians. But the Indians were defeated at the Battle of Tippecanoe (November



6, 1811). The "War Hawks," in Congress, led by Henry Clay, John C. Calhoun, Felix Grundy, and other young Congressmen, favored war for expansion. The West felt that war might result in the acquisition of Canada and all of Florida.

England had suspended her Orders in Council 24 hours before our declaration of war on June 18, 1812. If there had been the Atlantic cable, the War of 1812 would probably have not been fought. Madison's record as a war President does not seem to measure up to that of our other war Presidents. Leadership did not achieve effective results. The "On To Canada" march was stopped by the British, who had much better leadership. A turning point of the war was Perry's victory on Lake Erie, when he said: "We have met the enemy and they are ours." The British went into Washington and Maryland; they set the Capitol afire in reprisal for the burning of York (Toronto).

Francis Scott Key, a Washington lawyer who was on a British warship, trying to secure the release of a friend, saw our flag flying in the dawn over Fort McHenry, which successfully defended Baltimore against the British. He wrote the "Star Spangled Banner," part of it on an envelope, on September 14, 1814. Other successful engagements occurred. Andrew Jackson won a most effective victory at New Orleans on January 8, 1815, after the treaty of peace had been signed. The most successful part of the war was on the sea, where Americans gained a number of decisive victories on the Atlantic, as well as on the Great Lakes. The main results of the War of 1812 were that conditions remained as they were before the war; nothing was said about impressment of sailors or trade violations; and American nationalism was furthered. In the years that followed, Americans gained confidence and standing among the nations of the world and in their own eyes.

James Madison was a legislator in Virginia, where he and Jefferson secured the Virginia law for religious freedom in 1785. He urged increased power by the central government, and was responsible for many of the provisions of the Constitution of the United States. His leadership resulted in the calling of the Mount Vernon and Annapolis Conferences of 1785 and

1786, and the Constitutional Convention of 1787. James Madison wrote and debated on the need for stronger central government under the Constitution. His efforts helped to achieve its ratification, and he drafted nine of the first ten amendments to the Constitution, which are known as the Bill of Rights.

He was Secretary of State under Thomas Jefferson, and was faced with maintaining our rights as a neutral in the war between England and France. Madison served as a delegate to the Constitutional Convention, a member of the House of Representatives, and the fourth President of the United States. He agreed with the policies of Jefferson and helped him form the Democratic Republican party.

Madison's shortcomings included a lack of leadership and administrative ability, a rather subjective personality, and a tendency to follow (he listened to, and was influenced by, Congress and its young leaders). His second administration was upset by the unnecessary War of 1812. At his retirement, he gave attention to education, agriculture, and emancipation of the slaves. It is interesting to note that, while he is known as "The Father of the Constitution," he agreed with Jefferson's strict interpretation and States' Rights doctrine. He also wrote the Virginia Resolutions against the Alien and Sedition Acts, and yet, he had been one of the three writers of the *Federalist Papers*, which advocated a stronger central government. Perhaps, inconsistency might have been another of his weaknesses. James Madison served his country and its government for over 40 years. His leadership for the Constitution and religious freedom was brilliant and effective.

Dolly Payne Todd Madison, who married James Madison when she was 22 and he nearly twice her age, was a pretty, charming, and popular mistress of the White House. She had acted as official hostess of the Executive Mansion, during the eight years that her husband served as Secretary of State under Thomas Jefferson, whose wife had died before he entered the presidency. Mrs. Madison continued her duties, during the trying eight years that her own husband served as President. She managed to keep down continuous strife and political jealousies and quarrels, at certain

times. Madison was more the quiet, studious, calm, and matter-of-fact type of personality. He was not physically large or strong. Dolly and James Madison seemed to find in each other the ideal companion.

James Madison and his wife lived on their estate (Montpelier) for the next 20 years after his retirement. He managed his estate, served as a member of the Virginia Constitutional Convention of 1829, and assumed responsibility for leadership in the University of Virginia. On the death of her husband, Mrs. Madison returned to Washington, where she spent the last 12 years of her life.

*James Monroe (1758-1831), Fifth President of the United States.* President Monroe's administration (1817-1825) is known as the "Era of Good Feeling" because of the presence of one party—the Republican-Democratic party—and apparent political harmony. The Federalist party had practically disappeared, and the Whig party had not yet been formed. President Monroe selected a capable cabinet, among whom were John Quincy Adams as Secretary of State and John C. Calhoun as Secretary of War.

Henry Clay, Speaker of the House of Representatives, was assuming leadership for his "American System," which advocated the development of nationalism through the high protective tariff, appropriations for internal improvements, the development of the West, and a strong central government. President Monroe opposed the ideas of Clay. Clay gained a higher protective tariff in 1824. The East opposed internal improvements at national expense, and the West favored them. Congress was taking an active interest in surveying the needs for national roads, canals, and other internal improvements. Monroe signed some of the measures. John C. Calhoun supported Clay's program and nationalism at first, when he was Secretary of War. Later, Calhoun reversed himself. Daniel Webster opposed the War of 1812 and, as a member of Congress, defeated needed war legislation. Later, Webster also reversed himself on the protective tariff and other measures.

President Monroe signed the Missouri Compromise Bill of 1820, by which Missouri entered the union as a slave state, and Maine, as

a free state; slavery was barred from the rest of the Louisiana Territory north of 36°30'. Thus, a balance of 12 slave and 12 free states was maintained. The debate over this issue was bitter, and indicated the conflict which might ultimately come (and it did come in the Civil War) over the questions of sectionalism and slavery.

Andrew Jackson's victory over the Seminoles in Florida and the capture of Pensacola were the result of President Monroe's order for Jackson to put down the uprising in 1817. The United States purchased Florida in 1819. Monroe also secured, through the Rush-Bagot Agreement of 1817, disarmament of the Great Lakes. Spanish and Russian claims to the Oregon Territory were relinquished. Great Britain agreed to joint occupation of the Oregon Territory beyond the Rockies, and to the forty-ninth parallel as a boundary between Canada and the United States to the Rockies.

John Quincy Adams, as Secretary of State, influenced James Monroe to make a separate statement of foreign policy. Adams felt that the United States should not join England in making a declaration. Such a statement was to be aimed at the Holy Alliance (Russia, Spain, and France). In 1822, we recognized the Spanish provinces of Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Peru, and La Plata (Argentina) as independent nations. These provinces had revolted. The Holy Alliance nations planned to organize an army and take these possessions back again. This act would be a threat to the safety and security of the United States.

The Russian Czar, Alexander I, announced that Russian sovereignty and rule would be extended along the Pacific coast to Oregon. Thus, these three world powers—Russia, Spain, and France—threatened us in 1822. Russia also threatened to seize the West coast and Oregon Territory. Spain planned to establish herself in Latin America. What should our President, James Monroe; and our Secretary of State, John Quincy Adams, do in the face of such a danger?

One December 2, 1823, President Monroe sent his annual message to Congress, including the following statement of foreign policy:

The American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have as-

sumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers. . . . The political system of the allied powers (The Holy Alliance) is essentially different . . . from that of America. . . . We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers to declare that we should consider any attempt . . . to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the Governments who have declared their independence . . . we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them . . . by any European power in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States.

James Monroe was an officer in the Revolutionary War, a member of the Virginia Assembly, a delegate to the Continental Congress, a United States Senator, minister to France, and special envoy and ambassador to France and England. He was Governor of Virginia for three terms. Monroe, with Livingstone, negotiated the purchase of the Louisiana territory.

He served as Secretary of State and Secretary of War under President James Madison, through the unfortunate War of 1812, when the White House and several public buildings were set afire by the British. James Monroe had been a friend and student of law and politics under his fellow Virginians, James Madison and Thomas Jefferson. He had served under George Washington, another Virginia contemporary. Monroe was privileged to retire to Oak Hill, near Leesburg, Virginia. He became a delegate to the Virginia Constitutional Convention, a magistrate, and a regent of the University of Virginia. Monroe was one of the last of the Virginia dynasty to answer the call of his Creator.

James Monroe served his country and government for about 50 years. His shortcomings were evidenced in his attack on Hamilton, whom he disliked, and on Washington, who had recalled him from France. He had been undiplomatic in speaking against the Jay Treaty, while

he represented us in France. Monroe indicated his belief that the War of 1812 was inevitable, in the following statement: "War could not do us more injury than the present state of things, and it would certainly be more honorable to the nation and gratifying to the public feeling." There is evidence that James Monroe was only average in ability. But he will be remembered for his Monroe Doctrine. And he reversed the pacifist policy of his predecessors, for he stated: "A single campaign of invasion by a naval force superior to our own, aided by a few thousand land troops, would expose us to a greater expense." His appearance was that of a lean and lanky man, six feet tall, modest, and awkward. He was a poor speaker, who had a rather unpolished manner.

Public life left Monroe financially poor. With the death of James Monroe, six years after his retirement from the presidency, the Virginia dynasty of Presidents Washington, Jefferson, Madison, and their contemporaries passed from the American scene.

*John Quincy Adams (1767-1848), Sixth President of the United States.* John Quincy Adams, son of John Adams (second President of the United States), also served one term as President, from 1825 to 1829. The other candidates in the election of 1824 were: Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay, William H. Crawford, and John C. Calhoun. Calhoun withdrew and became Vice-President. Because no candidate had a majority of the electoral vote, the House of Representatives had to choose one of the candidates, at that time. Henry Clay, who was "low man," gave his support to Adams, who appointed him as his Secretary of State. Jackson and others called the appointment, a "corrupt bargain." But evidence does not prove that President Adams had made any agreement with Clay, for his support for the presidency. But the "Era of Good Feeling" and harmony in the Republican party were at end.

President John Q. Adams favored a program of internal improvements on a national scale. He suggested a system of federal highways, canals, and weather observatories. But Congress refused appropriations for such projects. He finally gained permission of Congress to send two representatives to the Panama Conference. Congressional leaders feared that a



possible discussion of the slave trade issue would be bad for us at that time. The "Tariff of Abominations" (1828), which was high for that period, was passed, during Adams' administration, by Jackson's followers. The tariff of 1828 made President Adams more unpopular than ever.

Returning to his home, Quincy, Massachusetts, John Quincy Adams was elected in 1830 to the House of Representatives, where he served effectively for the rest of his life. He stated in his now famous diary, "My election as President of the United States was not half so gratifying." Representative John Quincy Adams was an effective speaker and influential leader in Congress. He fought against President Andrew Jackson on the Bank, and on the Texas question. His fight against the "Gag Resolutions," which limited free speech on the slavery question in the House, led to their elimination in 1844. Adams led in the struggle against slavery, and in the demand for emancipation. His retirement from the presidency was an active one into public life, until he suffered his fatal stroke, while he was at his desk in the House of Representatives. Thus, he was a contemporary of Andrew Jackson, as well as a younger contemporary of Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and his father, John Adams.

The father was proud of his son's achievement as diplomat, law-maker, writer, Secretary of State and President. Young Adams had accompanied his father to Europe, where he met many leaders of the world. John Quincy was a serious and studious lad. He served as secretary to several foreign ministers; minister to Holland, Prussia, and Russia; and peace commissioner after the War of 1812. His leadership as a state and national Senator was an independent one, and of a non-partisan nature. Elected as a Massachusetts Federalist, he often voted for Republican measures, such as the Embargo, if he felt these measures were best for the country. His leadership as President, Secretary of State, and foreign minister was also of an independent, uncontrollable type.

John Quincy Adams had shortcomings which caused him to be unpopular with the people. Some of his characteristics included a cold, impersonal, rather suspicious manner; little, if

any, sense of humor; and an independent, non-conformist, almost self-righteous nature. He was a short, bald-headed, and an unconventionally dressed little man. His voice was shrill and high-pitched, but his vocabulary and logic held his audience and influenced them. When President, he was known to have taken his early, daily morning swim in the Potomac River, not far from the White House, in the 1820's—and he left his clothes on the bank. As President, he did not dress too well. John Quincy Adams had few personal friends, and spent many lonely hours in working, writing, and reading.

But he gave 55 years of service to his country. His influence on the Monroe Doctrine, Federal improvements, the right of free speech and petition, the emancipation of the slaves, and respectful foreign relations and treaties was outstanding—often brilliant. George Washington stated that, "John Quincy Adams is the most valuable public character abroad." (Washington had appointed young Adams, who was 27 years of age, as minister to Holland.)

*John Marshall (1755-1835), Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, 1801-1835.* While John Jay was the first Chief Justice, John Marshall was the great Chief Justice, who served for 34 years, and established the authority and standing of the Supreme Court and national government. He was another Virginian who served as an officer in the Revolutionary War, a member of his native state's legislature, a delegate to Virginia's Constitutional Convention, a commissioner to France in 1777 and 1778, a member of the United States House of Representatives, and Secretary of State under John Adams.

John Marshall's decisions were written in a clear-cut, compelling, and an exact manner. He had fought for the ratification of the Constitution of the United States, in his native state of Virginia. George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, and Patrick Henry were contemporary Virginians and Americans, whom he admired and from whom he received inspiration. At the age of 45, Marshall started his term as Chief Justice, at the insistence of John Adams, who had appointed him in 1801.

Marshall rendered over 40 important decisions dealing with the interpretation of the



Constitution, and among which are famous ones, which have enabled the United States government to assume its rightful and sovereign power over the states. John Marshall established the power of the Congress to regulate interstate commerce, to annul Congressional and state laws (if they are unconstitutional), to charter a national bank, and to uphold the inviolability (sacredness) of contracts and charters.

In the early case of *Marbury vs. Madison*, Marshall ruled that the Court did not have the power to serve a writ or order against Madison, in order to give a judge's commission to Marbury. This decision established the right of the Supreme Court to review a law's constitutionality (agreement or disagreement with the Constitution).

In the *Dartmouth vs. Woodward* case, the Chief Justice ruled that the College charter was not to be revoked, and that no legislature could pass laws impairing (endangering) contracts.

The constitutionality of a national bank was maintained in the case of *McCullough vs. Maryland*. The state of Maryland was heavily taxing the Baltimore branch of the Second Bank of the United States. Justice Marshall overruled the state's sovereign right (alleged right) to defy the Federal government, even within its own borders. Thus, the Federal government is sovereign in such matters, which concern the nation and national powers.

By the *Gibbons vs. Ogden* decision the national government established its right to control interstate commerce. John Marshall ruled that the waters of New York Harbor did not belong to the state of New York alone. He stated that the framers of the Constitution meant, "to keep commercial intercourse among the states free from all restraints." A monopoly of steamboating granted to Robert Fulton and Robert Livingstone was broken. This was a victory for free private enterprise, and this power is being used today to extend the power of the national government.

John Marshall was a contemporary of Washington's and Jefferson's, although his greatest work was done after the death of Washington. The ideals and works of Washington, Adams, Madison, and other Federalists were furthered in the early nineteenth century by the decisions

of Marshall. His courageous leadership made possible the strong and respected federal system which we enjoy today, for Marshall's decisions were precedents, by which the government acts today, as a *nation* of forty-eight states. The Supreme Court can declare an act of Congress as unconstitutional, annul a state law which impairs corporation contracts, and annul a state law that is in conflict with federal law.

*Alexander Hamilton (1757-1804), Our First Secretary of the Treasury.* Alexander Hamilton served as Washington's aide and an officer in the field during the Revolution; he was a delegate to Annapolis in 1786, and to the Constitutional Convention in 1787; he became the first Secretary of the Treasury. Hamilton, James Madison, and John Jay wrote the essays known as the *Federalist Papers*, a series of arguments for a stronger national government.

Like Madison, who led in the ratification campaign for the new Constitution in Virginia, Alexander Hamilton and John Jay led the fight for ratification in New York. Hamilton had faith in the upper classes, and distrusted the common people, as to their ability for self-government. His financial reports to Congress and his Report on Manufactures contain his philosophy and program. He stated:

All communities divide themselves into the few and the many. The first are the rich and well born, the other the mass of the people. The voice of the people has been said to be the voice of God; and however generally this maxim has been quoted and believed, it is not true in fact. The people are turbulent and changing; they seldom judge or determine right. Give therefore to the first class a distinct, permanent share in the government. They will check the unsteadiness of the second, and as they cannot receive any advantage by a change, they will therefore ever maintain good government.

Hamilton's plan for establishing the credit of the United States was approved by Congress over much opposition by Jefferson and the agricultural classes, who felt that the rich, business class, and speculators would benefit at their expense. A tariff—passed before Hamilton became Secretary of the Treasury—an excise tax on liquor, refunding the bonds, a national bank, and a sound monetary and coinage system were accomplished.

Our early political parties had their start with Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson, in our first presidential cabinet. Hamilton led the Federalists; Jefferson became the leader of the opposing party, which became known as the Democratic-Republican party. The Federalists were in power for twelve years under Washington and Adams.

Our first Secretary of the Treasury's leadership was powerful. The new government's authority, respect, and financial credit were furthered by him. He favored England, the property-holding aristocracy, and the Union. But Hamilton had little, if any, sympathy for the agricultural interests, and the common people. His prejudices and hot temper kept him from becoming a great leader for the American Republic.

Alexander Hamilton had shortcomings. He had a high-handed, sarcastic, and even an obnoxious manner; as well as an insulting and arrogant attitude toward the masses of the people. Adams' hesitation to commission Hamilton, second in command to Washington, when war threatened with France in 1798, infuriated him. He persuaded his followers in the House of Representatives to vote for Jefferson, his political opponent and enemy, when there was a tie over the presidency, between Jefferson and Aaron Burr (1800). His remarks on Burr were insulting, and provoked animosity. Later, he blocked Burr's attempt to become governor of New York. His rivalry with Burr finally, in 1804, resulted in a duel, which caused his death.

Our first Secretary of the Treasury was a brilliant lawyer, and he gave up a profitable practice to enter public life, at a great sacrifice. His future was bright, but his temperament was against him. He lost; America gained through his leadership, for he helped to establish a sound financial system, as well as a strong federal government. He is sometimes referred to as the "Constitution Maker."

*Albert Gallatin (1761-1849), Jefferson's Swiss-born Secretary of the Treasury.* Albert Gallatin was the first naturalized citizen to become a prominent leader in politics. He was brilliant and influential in the early history of America. While his achievement was great as Secretary of the Treasury, Gallatin took part

in the Revolutionary War, became a Pennsylvania legislator, and served in the United States House of Representatives. He also acted as Minister to France (1815-1823), and to England, where he served a year. His writing was noteworthy, especially his work on the American Indian.

*Other Early Leaders: Teachers, Preachers, Doctors, and Neighbors—Many Unsung Heroes.* Many of Washington's and Jefferson's contemporaries were alike in their interest in, and devotion to, democracy, their belief in the ability of the common man to govern himself, and in their industry and sacrifice for the development of the American Republic. They were different in background, temperament, education, ability, social status, and personal characteristics. Most of them were sincere, skillful, meticulous, hard-working, prayerful, enthusiastic, loyal, and honest.

Our leaders made mistakes. They were not perfect, but they achieved great things for the period in which they lived, and for us—their posterity. We must project ourselves into the period in which they lived and led, in order to understand and appreciate their accomplishments, for that time—and for this time. Our lives are better for their having lived fully and successfully. They are an inspiration to us.

The Fathers of the American Republic and other forceful leaders and citizens did not drift with the current. They went up stream, if they considered that it was good to do so. This drive and courage often resulted in criticism. Most of our leaders and their people had difficult moments, but they faced the criticism, heartaches, trials, and tribulations. They weighed carefully what they considered was best for all, and acted wholeheartedly to do something about it. If this action displeased a minority (a small conscientious, or selfish group), they went ahead, and did what they considered best for the majority. Some people seem to think that this is dictatorship; others recognize it as leadership. Most Americans want leaders who make decisions, and then do something about them—even if they make a few mistakes, in the doing.

But back of our leaders and statesmen in early America, the unsung heroes were shaping, building, and creating "America the Beautiful,"

into the great country that it is today. Teachers, writers, homemakers, farmers, tradesmen, parents, preachers, neighbors, the little people like ourselves. And don't forget the women—the colonial and pioneer mothers, wives, sweethearts, and sisters—who were willing to sacrifice, “pull up stakes,” move on, conquer a wilderness, and build an empire in the West. In the latter nineteenth century, the poorly paid school teacher, the religious circuit rider, and the country doctor were again the unsung heroes, who inspired, educated, treated, and guided those who led and those who followed. The people believed and worked; they were willing to take chances; they were optimistic and achieved what others considered was impossible.

With the election of Andrew Jackson, in 1828, the people of the West were coming into their own. More people were gaining the right to vote for President, and the cause of democracy was advanced. Jacksonian Democracy and the Western Movement followed, and influenced the development of the American Republic in the 1830's and 1840's.

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## John Maynard Keynes

JOHN BARR

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“For a generation economics has been about Keynes.”

A well-known American economist has made this list of somewhat recent world-shaking events—the two World Wars, the Great Depression, the New Deal, John Maynard Keynes, and the Atomic Bomb. Mr. Keynes (pronounced to rhyme with brains) did toss a bombshell into the placid waters of classical economic theory when, in 1936, he published his book, *The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money*. It has been the most talked about book in its field since Karl Marx wrote his celebrated treatise on “Capital.”

The ideas expressed by Keynes are not entirely new. They can be found to some extent, at least as far back as the writings of Thos. R. Malthus, in the early 1800's, and more recently in the books of several lesser English economists

—among others, John A. Hobson, who called himself a heretic. Mr. Malthus had largely been forgotten except for his *Essay on Population*, and the others had so little professional standing that their teaching was ignored by the accepted authorities—the brass hats of economics.

It was different, however, with Mr. Keynes. He was the high priest of his department at Cambridge University. He had taught his subject in the orthodox manner for many years and had become so prominent in other ways that whatever he said had to be given due consideration.

A very short biographical sketch is in order. Keynes was born in Cambridge, June 5, 1883, and died on Easter Sunday, 1946. His parents were both connected with the University, so he was brought up in an academic atmosphere and



was given the traditional education of his class—Eton and the University. A good deal like our own Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, Keynes believed politically in "e-quality," but socially he believed in "the-quality."

In college, he was at first mainly interested in mathematics, but he had the rather embarrassing experience of having one of his papers severely criticized—with mistakes pointed out—by one of his fellow students; and thereupon, he decided that his real talent was for economics. He has made the remark that economics is an easy subject in which few excel.

After graduation, he took the government civil service examinations and was employed for two years in the India Office before going back to Cambridge to teach. Keynes was versatile and soon held business positions with the University. He also was greatly interested in the fine arts, especially music, painting and the theatre, and he enjoyed the society of other people. In 1925 he married Lydia Lopokova, an intellectual Russian ballerina. Mrs. Keynes did not dabble in economics, business, or politics, but she was an excellent companion for her husband in his somewhat lighter pursuits.

Later, Keynes became the director of an insurance company and of an investment house, part owner of a magazine of opinion, and editor of *The Economic Journal*. He never held an elective political office. He was a member of the British Liberal Party, now extinct, but served in very important appointive positions under Liberal, Conservative and Labor governments. Upon being knighted in 1942, he became Lord Keynes, First Baron of Tilton. He took his seat in the House of Lords and participated in its debates.

Public attention was first focused upon him through the publication, in 1920, of a book called *The Economic Consequences of the Peace*, in which he predicted the failure of the Allies to collect great reparations from Germany. He had been at the Paris peace conference, on the staff of David Lloyd George, as the representative of the British Treasury. He became so disgusted with the economic provisions of the treaty that he resigned his job, went home, and wrote the book. His principal point was a very simple one—that a conquered enemy country could not be kept in a state of weakness and at

the same time be expected to pay large damages. Reparations, as well as war debts, must be paid with goods. To produce great quantities of goods, a country must be strong industrially. Keynes may not have said it, but where the Allies made their ultimate mistake was in allowing Germany to become strong industrially and still not collecting the reparations.

The book became a non-fiction best seller, and made considerable money for its author. He invested in American common stocks, and later on, he foresaw the collapse of 1929, for he sold out his holdings in time to avoid the crash. Being equally successful in other business ventures, he became a wealthy man. His economics were practical as well as theoretical, and this played no small part in establishing his prestige.

Other books written by Mr. Keynes are *Laissez-faire and Communism*, *The Economic Consequences of Mr. Churchill*, *Essays in Biography*, and *A Treatise on Money*. In his little book about Mr. Churchill, he pulls no punches in criticizing the financial policy of the then Chancellor of the Exchequer. But later on, as Prime Minister, Winston Churchill relied upon Keynes as his principal advisor on economic affairs.

Keynes was, off and on, a financial advisor to the British Treasury from the beginning of the First World War to the time of his death, and was also a director of the Bank of England, which corresponds in a general way with our Federal Reserve Bank. Being associated with Lord Catto in the Treasury, and the two men occupying adjoining offices, they were known as "Lord Catto and Lord Doggo." Who says the English have no sense of humor?

It can be said that Keynes was a casualty of the last war. He had a severe heart attack before the war started, but he continued his arduous work, playing the leading role in several very important international conferences. He died in England shortly after attending an especially difficult conference in the United States. It has been written that "in the early 1920's Keynes was a passionate missionary, in the 1930's he was a scholar and creative thinker, and in the 1940's a philosopher and a statesman."

It is now time to consider the philosophy of



Keynes. As has been seen, Keynes quite often left his professional ivory tower and took part in the business and political life of his time. He liked people and knew people, and he had an extraordinary aptitude for making correct observations of human behavior. This he turned to good account in forming his economic theory. The classical concept of capitalism had been based upon certain assumptions, certain ideas of how people act in their business doings, which ideas, if they had ever been accurate, were by this time well-nigh obsolete. Keynes had the courage to act according to what he saw, to burn his bridges behind him, and to revise the teachings which had been taken for granted for well over a hundred years.

Some chapters of his *General Theory* are very difficult to read and understand. Many professional economists agree that he is unnecessarily confusing and it would be useless for the untrained to try to get his meaning. The method of exposition in these chapters is unfortunate because from it has arisen a good deal of irrelevant controversy. But other chapters are more conversational. The gist of his differences with the old teaching is contained in three ideas expressed by three phrases which have become famous and ubiquitous in economic literature. They are: "propensity to consume," "liquidity preference," and the "multiplier principle."

The "propensity to consume" is simply the percentage of a man's income that he is in the habit of spending for his living; what he does not spend on living, he saves, so the propensity to consume, plus the propensity to save, accounts for the entire income. The old theory was that the amount of saving had been determined by the amount of interest that people could get on their savings. People, therefore, saved for the sole purpose of receiving interest, and the higher the rate that was offered, the greater would be the amount of money which was saved. As, by definition, the money which was not saved would be spent for consumer goods, and that which was saved would be loaned to someone who desired to use it, it meant that all of each man's income would soon be returned to the business stream—none of it would become idle. Whenever money is spent for goods and services someone is put to work, but when money remains idle, men also remain idle. Therefore, if

all income is re-spent, business activity will be maintained—and there will be no recessions.

What Keynes observed, in contrast to the above, was that saving instead of depending upon the rate of interest, is largely a matter of habit, depending upon how much of his income the man would like to consume and how much of it he thinks he ought to save. (This is true of people in the middle income brackets, while the wealthy, having more than they wish to spend on their living, save automatically.) The saving also depends to some extent upon the size of the income, and Keynes further observed that as the man's income increases he saves a larger part of it than previously—saving increases faster than consumption.

The difference in the two concepts is startling, and if Keynes is right, it puts us squarely upon the horns of a dilemma. If the savings are invested—and they must be if a depression is to be avoided—then the output of goods increases faster than the demand for them. But if goods cannot be sold, they will not be produced. To have mass production we must have mass consumption. Otherwise, factories will close down and unemployment will ensue. If savings are not invested, the same thing happens, so that either way we are threatened with depression. We are faced with the paradox that the richer we become the greater the danger, for as our income increases, the percentage of it that is saved becomes greater, and it is more difficult to find opportunities to invest it.

The orthodox answer—and the one still seen in almost every daily newspaper—is that business activity can be maintained, and our standard of living raised, by constant investment. That is, we must put the idle men to work building more factories, even if our existing factories are standing idle. It sounds rather silly, doesn't it? In 1932 many industries were operating at 20 per cent of capacity.

Keynes' answer is, that instead of saving so much money and building more factories, we should spend more money for consumer goods (increase the propensity to consume). Thus, men should be put to work in the factories that we already have, rather than building more factories.

Suppose we push the idea of the more saving, the better, to its ultimate conclusion. We could

all exist on bread and water, live in shanties, and wear overalls. We could never go to a picture show, buy a gallon of gasoline, smoke a cigarette, or use a lipstick. We could thus save more money and invest it in building factories. In which case, most of us would be employed in the actual work of construction, and as the money came back to us, we could save it again and build still more factories. But how long would we keep it up? There would be no demand for the things that these factories could produce and we would see them standing idle. Even Henry Ford changed his slogan from "Buy a Ford and Save the Difference" to "Buy a Ford and Spend the Difference."

We are coming to see that when a newly invented machine increases our ability to produce, the idea embodied in the machine is as important as the money that it took to build the machine. All the savings in the world could not have produced Ford cars until Mr. Ford had the imagination to design both the car and the method of production. In this way, science and invention have accounted for much of our economic progress. Yet many conservative economists and businessmen still insist that *all* progress must come from saving.

As by far the greatest part of the saving is done by the people having the largest incomes, the way to accomplish Keynes' purpose is to bring about a greater equality of income. But nowhere does he suggest a complete equality of income.

We come now to the second of the magic phrases: "liquidity preference." As we have seen, classical theory held that money would be saved only for the one purpose of investing it—if opportunity for investing did not exist, all income would be spent for consumer goods. This followed from the belief that human wants were insatiable. But as Keynes looked at what went on around him, he held that saving was a habit, and that investment was more or less an afterthought. If a man could obtain what seemed to him to be an attractive rate of interest for his money, he would lend it; otherwise he would simply hold it in idleness. That is, he preferred to keep his funds in a liquid condition—meaning that he would have the cash at any time he wished to use it. That is "liquidity preference."

The classical theory was that as opportunities for investment declined, the rate of interest would fall accordingly, possibly to zero, at which point there would be no saving. But Keynes' idea was that saving went on anyway and that people would not lend their money for long periods of time—such as bonds are issued for—unless they could get about two per cent interest. When this point of liquidity preference was reached, idle money would begin to pile up, and not being spent, it would not keep people working. Again we are threatened with depression. Keynes believed that the lower interest rates could be kept, the more investment there would be, because the profit that businessmen made was the difference between what they earned on money used in business and what they paid for the use of it. Keynes thought he had made a very important discovery when he observed that the men who actually start and operate businesses are a different set of men than those who save money. This breaks the connection between saving money and using it in business and makes the one less dependent upon the other.

There is another reason for liquidity preference. If businessmen come to believe that a decline in business activity and a fall in prices is in sight, they will prefer to convert their other resources into money and hold it with the intention of buying back their goods at the lower prices. It follows from what has been said that this increased liquidity preference will cause unemployment.

To avoid this, Keynes saw that government could step in to fill the gap. He therefore advocated spending for public works in time of depression; he advanced in support of this policy his "multiplier principle." This principle states that if business is running along at a slow rate and it is desired to speed it up, a certain amount of new money injected into the business stream, either by government or by private enterprise, will increase the national income by an amount several times as much as the original expenditure. This is true because the money as it is obtained by the first recipients will be passed on by them to others in the purchase of goods, and this process will be repeated several times in the course of a year.

Let us see how it works. In 1932 our national

income was roughly \$40 billion. In the next seven years the federal government borrowed \$25 billion and spent it. Our national income went up as follows: In 1933 it was \$43 billion; in 1934, \$51 billion; in 1935, \$56 billion; in 1936, \$65 billion; in 1937, \$71 billion; in 1938, \$64 billion (the drop occurring at a time when government receipts equalled government expenditures), and in 1939 it was again \$71 billion. The total income for the seven years was \$421 billion, an increase of \$141 billion or 50 per cent over what it would have been had the conditions of 1932 continued. (In the meantime prices had risen by 20 per cent, which means that over the entire period they averaged 10 per cent higher.) This would show a multiplier of nearly six but, of course, there was, during this time, an increase in private borrowing. The multiplication is supposed to be about three when conditions are bad; it is less as full employment is approached.

These three simple observations: (a) that saving increases faster than income; (b) that people, under certain conditions, will hold money in idleness; and (c) that new money injected into the business stream when times are bad multiplies itself several times, are the core of Keynes' teaching. They constitute the ideas that have caused a veritable revolution in economic thinking.

Of course, the revolution is not without its opponents. Keynes and his followers have been looked upon by many as little better than Communists. Keynes did visit Russia and was fully acquainted with the Soviet system, but he had no use for the system further than that he was sympathetic with the desire of the Russian people to better their living conditions. His attitude was thus expressed: "Out of the cruelty and stupidity of Old Russia, nothing could ever emerge, but beneath the cruelty and stupidity of New Russia some speck of the ideal may be hid."

Keynes retained his belief in capitalism, but he also believed that it must be modified and be made to avoid the wild business fluctuations that have characterized it in the past—if it is to survive. He believed that it would take government action to do the job. That is the fly in the ointment. His opponents do not like government intervention in business affairs, and the

spending of public money, when that money is to be raised—or borrowed and later paid back—by progressive taxes on incomes and inheritances.

The function of government is to do that which must be done, and which private enterprise either cannot or will not do. Those who favor government activity do not advocate it as a substitute for private enterprise, but as something to fall back on when private enterprise fails to do what should be done.

Keynes visited the White House in Washington several times. It has been charged that he dictated New Deal policy at a time when he was discredited in his own country. It is probable that President Roosevelt was impressed by his visitor's analysis of the problem of recovery, but the reform measures of that period were enacted because of what Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes would have called "the felt necessities of the time." Nor was Lord Keynes discredited in England. Englishmen dearly love a Lord, and the Bank of England is almost as sacred to them as the Church of England. A man who was elevated to the peerage and made a director of the Bank of England was not discredited by most English people.

As to the Keynesians' being Communists, there is nothing in the Keynes doctrine that calls for so much as an amendment to our Constitution. If we change our form of government every time Congress passes a new law, we have already changed it many thousands of times and will no doubt continue to change it many more times in the future. Keynes and his followers are not trying to force communism upon us. They are trying to preserve free enterprise by making it work so well that people will not be looking for something else. That is the answer to this Russian threat.

Keynes severely criticized modern capitalism, but he had no use for the Soviet system. The contention still made by many people, that we must go to one extreme or the other—that we must have absolute capitalism, which has never been tried, or absolute socialism, which not as many as one per cent of the American people have ever considered seriously—is just dogmatic assertion. Keynes taught the middle way, the "golden mean." Aristotle taught the same thing over 2,000 years ago, and we still have that option.



# New Viewpoints in Teaching Better Intercultural Relations

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The good work in better intercultural relations, now being conducted by so many organizations in the field of social democracy, can well be supplemented by the utilization of some new viewpoints. The teaching of mental hygiene should be more fully utilized. The school classroom, by action and the method of teaching, can accomplish much more than mere preceptual teaching. Emphasis on the moral values of individuals should constitute the appeal for social democracy rather than emphasis upon nationalism and political rights, as is too often the case.

Mental hygiene places stress on the wholesome integration of the individual on the high levels of sociocentric adjustment, that is, upon cooperative levels of integration. Integration in itself means cooperation—a binding together. Individually, integration means the efficient use of the whole body organism to attain the satisfactions and securities that the individual needs to live and to function. Mind, body and emotions of the individual must work together—must cooperate—for the integration of the individual. For the individual to secure what he wants, his integration must be of such a nature that will make him a useful member of society. Hence, he cannot desire an integration which brings him into conflict with others. For then he defeats his efforts for integration. The only type of integration that an individual can seek from moral or pragmatic standpoints is one which leads him to respect the rights to integration of others. Thus individual integration cannot be thought of, or achieved, without regard to the moral and practical effects upon oneself and others. Integration to be worthy of its name and purpose hence must be democratic—socially cooperative.

Those persons with racial, ethnic and religious prejudice, which constitute discrimination, are essentially undemocratically integrated. Their lack of social democracy is a problem chiefly of psychology. Prejudiced individuals

are maladjusted. They project upon ethnic and religious groups other than their own their failures to obtain security and satisfaction in their psycho-physical life. They seek escape from their problems of real or fancied insecurity by blaming others for their troubles. Insecurity may be material or purely psychical or both. Anti-social psychology, however, grows out of the individual psychology towards people as individuals, as practiced in daily life.

Most people have cultivated the belief that it is sound objectively, morally, and psychologically, to dislike individuals within their own ethnic and religious group and in other groups. But such dislike toward other individuals is as much of a prejudice as a dislike of all members of another group because of beliefs or experience with some members of the other group. Individuals dislike individuals as a defense mechanism to escape some problem of adjustment. The dislike may be based upon an opinion that another is of low or inferior character: dishonest, undependable, inefficient, immoral in general, and so forth. One's dislike is a means of adjustment, of securing physical or psychical security from real or fancied harm to one's ego, prestige, self-esteem or social esteem. Dislikes are practiced for fear that one will be imposed upon in some way and be made to feel, or to become inferior, in personal and, later, in larger social relations.

Dislikes are wrong psychological means of integration. They witness our frustrations and inhibitions. They are attempts at compensation. If one is rejected by another, he secures satisfaction and security by stating at times orally that he dislikes the other and does not desire to see that person again. A dislike is a "sour grapes" philosophy. Unless there is individual good will among all, the psychological tendencies are present for the growth of anti-social feelings towards those of other ethnic and religious groups. Personal democracy is a prerequisite and corequisite of social democracy. Psy-



chological explanations of the reasons for anti-social democracy need to be applied to the study of the individual's psychology to others as individuals. Individual dislikes need to be shown to be contrary to sound psychological principles of integration and contrary to the principles of democracy.

When one dislikes another, he is guilty of undemocratic conduct, for in disliking another he is acting as complaining witness, arresting officer, judge and jury. One acts autocratically, wielding all these powers in and by oneself, while the democratic theory of jurisprudence is that no man can be convicted of a crime—that is, have judgment passed on him—save by a fair trial. Such procedure calls for the complainant to present objective evidence and to have it accepted objectively by a jury in the presence of a judge, who presents the law on the punishment to be meted out if the jury finds that injustice has been done. However, when one dislikes another, all objectivity vanishes. A dislike is subjective and thus stands condemned by all criteria of democracy, the rules of evidence and religious principles of brotherhood.

The classroom can be a greater force for bettering intercultural relations when its method of living and teaching are in accord with accepted principles of psychology. No increase in preceptual teaching of democracy is needed. What is needed is that pupils live together in the classroom; that they work together in acquiring an education in the classroom and in outside preparation. Schools conducted chiefly on the recitation method of proving to the teacher that one understands the lesson and accomplishes the work, and therefore should be rewarded with good marks and eventual promotion, ignore all the sound teachings of psychology and defeat all efforts at teaching social democracy.

In every classroom there are diverse ethnic and religious groups. But the strategic means of overcoming prejudices and preventing their further growth are ignored. Pupils live by themselves in the classroom. They recite to the teacher. They have few contacts with each other. Hence, adjustment to each other does not take place. If pupils worked together in the classroom and in after-class activities to pre-

pare the lesson for the next day, then pupils of diverse backgrounds would be thrown together. Undoubtedly some maladjustments would result from these contacts, but good teaching would eradicate them. Pupil contact would work them out too. As it is, life in the classroom does not integrate children individually or socially. Tolerance is achieved to the extent that children of diverse backgrounds do sit in the same room. But life there is negative: "You keep your place and I'll keep mine." This is the spirit that prevails.

Children make little effort in the classroom to cooperate with, or to like those, of other groups. In fact, they quite often—if not always—make judgments as to their classmates. Once they have decided that they don't want to go beyond a bowing acquaintance with others of different groups, then they appraise classmates of their own group. They decide, after looking them over, whether they will like this or that individual because he is of their type in manners, dress, affluence and so forth.

Children, orally or by acts, reveal the same maladjusted psychology that adults do. They admit or reveal that they don't know certain individuals in the classroom, and moreover, they don't care to. When questioned they admit to no wrongdoing done them by the person whom they dislike, but they don't "like" him, that is, they don't "like" his personality, conduct, behavior and so forth.

Socialized cooperative methods of learning will bring children into contact with each other. In time, adjustments to each other will bring mutual good will. The problem, of course, will call for a good deal of remedial education in cases where the psychology of a child, learned at home accidentally, incidentally, or purposely, is highly egocentric. Present trends toward socialization and activity programs placing stress on good psychological integration need strengthening. Some direct perceptual teaching on the principles of psychology and democracy necessarily must be included in the course of study. When democracy as a philosophy and psychology of life is taught, an opportunity presents itself to teach personal democracy. It is not enough to teach the principles of democracy and its various kinds: political, social and economic. Personal democracy must be

included, that is, to teach how contrary to democracy and sound psychology is the practice of individual dislikes. Of course, one cannot like everybody unless many occasions are sought to build on pleasant associations, experiences and feelings. But at any rate pupils should not be encouraged to believe that they have the right to form dislikes, discriminatory judgments, based upon personal feelings of frustration or disappointment in not securing or feeling good self-esteem. Most certainly, if individuals believe that it is objectively and morally sound to dislike individuals, they will further encourage that dichotomy in human relations which encourages people to look upon each other not as equal persons, but as different persons who may be disliked for personality reasons as well as for group or "social" reasons. The necessary good will for social co-operation must be drawn from a deep reservoir of good will for each and every person as an individual. Life in the classroom must be that of all living together, not one of uni-lateral relationship of each pupil to the teacher for the individual aggrandizement of each individual.

In stressing intercultural democratic relations, emphasis, too, must be placed upon social democracy from moral grounds as individuals. Too often such fine efforts are placed upon political grounds, namely, those of nationalism, as an end in itself. Pupils are urged to have no prejudice on the ground that it is un-American. The stress should be placed upon human, moral, democratic rights. Too often, social democracy is urged to unite the country not for human or international unity, but for national unity. Stress is placed upon treating minorities as Americans, not as human beings, or democratically for their own sake, but to maintain national morale. Thus we have subway poster advertising in New York City appealing for good will in the name of patriotism. Then various organizations, by their very names, indicate a nationalist slant, and not a human or moral approach. Proper names for such organizations would be Councils for Democracy, and not American Councils. They should ap-

peal for human unity or moral unity, and not for American unity.

The danger is that all such fine organizations may find themselves aiding to build a stronger provincial nationalism in which democratic rights are to be enjoyed by groups now suffering from discrimination, as long as they are united in a nationalism which simply wants to hold its own in world competition for power. That is, the danger exists here in the work of intercultural organizations that pragmatic reasons will be advanced for national social democracy, just as similar practical reasons are urged for social improvement in order to have better and more military strength. For example, many persons urge humanitarian ideas not for themselves and for their children *per se*, but that the military needs of the nation may be better served. Thus the abolition of child labor has been urged so that children will have better health in order that the physical health of future soldiers will be improved. Others urge good housing, better food and health measures in general, not for themselves alone or for the good of the children, but because such improvements will mean fewer rejections in future selective service. If other wars are to be fought, then preparations for them should be made, but the plea should be based upon the direct need of health measures, and so forth, and not on the specious plea that health and other benefits will flow from military training and service. To advance the advantages of health and other good measures from the specific purpose of military preparedness weakens the case for the latter. Similarly, all pleas for the achievement of social democracy and the respect of the right of the discriminated minorities on the appeal to nationalism also weakens the case for social democracy.

Undoubtedly much more progress toward better intercultural relations will be achieved once emphasis is placed wholly upon individual and social democracy for their own sake as moral, psychological and human rights and needs. The viewpoints advanced herein will aid that progress.

# Leadership Training Classes

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Many leadership training classes have appeared in the past few years. As yet, few excellent books or materials are available to guide one who attempts to conduct such a class. It is hoped that this article may be a contribution to this scant field of literature. Likewise, few attempts have been made to utilize, at the secondary school level, the vast amount of materials and the thinking done by our Armed Forces in this field during World War II. The writer was many times impressed by the sound teaching methods and the educational devices used by the Army in its training program. This applied to its basic training program, its officer candidate training schools, and such specialists' schools as the School for Personnel Services on the campus of Washington and Lee University.

It is the belief of the writer that leadership training classes are justified at the secondary school level for two reasons: (1) the idealistic and long-range justification is that the best insurance of American democracy is a well-educated and understanding citizen body, and that in the give and take of our system we must have competent and trained leadership at all levels; and (2) that this leadership needs training in democratic methods and that the secondary school offers the last opportunity to reach nearly 90 per cent of our youth. The realistic and immediate purpose of such a course is to secure student support and understanding of the school policies by a democratic method and to accomplish an improved program by a like means.

The writer found the need for trained student leaders in a high school of approximately 1500 students and these students divided into nearly 40 home rooms, each home room having an organization, some very successful, others scarcely worthy of the name. He was authorized by his principal to conduct a leadership training class for these home room presidents, the class to meet once a week. This class has been conducted for a year and a

half. The results were so satisfactory that another class for club presidents has been organized this year.

Not finding any satisfactory text or other printed materials at the secondary school level, the writer made use of his military experience at the Army Information and Education Course. This course was designed to train Information and Education personnel for working with troops. In reality it was a course in concentrated doses for selling the army program to its personnel. The very best propaganda methods were explained and their uses taught. The program being largely on a voluntary basis, the leaders had to know methods to win their men by democratic not military means. The use of the panel study methods, briefing leaders, production of skits, shows, and other entertainment features, building and arrangement of displays, publication of troop papers, use of news agencies, and many other propaganda techniques was in the curriculum. The objective of the class for the home room presidents was to secure the active cooperation of the entire student body in the school program and to have this pressure for the betterment of the school come from the student body and not be imposed by the administration. The home room presidents were carefully drilled on parliamentary procedure first. The idea that they were a select group, trusted by their fellow students, and that they were in turn expected by their fellow students to be examples of the best and to furnish constructive leadership for the school was instilled. These leaders were slowly fed ideas, which they in turn proposed as their own, and then were taught the propaganda techniques of the Army Information and Education officer to put them over to their home room and the student body. It is too early to judge completely of the results but the improvements to date have been highly gratifying.

On the basis of experience with the home room group another for club presidents was



inaugurated this year. Its purpose is to expand and democratize the club program. The same techniques are being used. The results are showing sooner.

The military experience is applicable in other ways as well in the educational program. The methods utilized in this course are just as satisfactory for a classroom procedure in a social studies class as well. The trained Special Services officer has an excel-

lent background for a visual aids program or club program, the Athletic officer, for an intramural sports program. The library program offered suggestions very usable in a classroom library or in a small school situation. The list could go on indefinitely. The school teacher is missing a real bet if he passes up utilization of those skills learned in the service of his country. Likewise, teachers should familiarize themselves with this vast store of teaching aids.

## College Students Counter on Cheating Charges

A. M. ODELL

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Is cheating in colleges as extensive as reported in recent studies? If so, what are the causes, the educational implications, and how may an attack be made on the problem? The writer found, on interviewing an unselected group of students on this level, over two-thirds of whom were G.I.'s, that about 70 per cent believed there was some truth in the findings of the studies. Moreover, they felt that cheating had increased since the war, and a few held that it was a symptom of a deeper moral trouble of their generation.

The remaining individuals in the survey saw no evidences of dishonesty in classes. Consequently, they thought that there was little cheating in colleges and that what did exist was less serious and widespread than was claimed—in short, that the “charge made good headlines” and was greatly overplayed. Their comments were that students, as others, functioned in a competitive society and saw practices all about them which conditioned them, but since they were not alone concerned, they should not be singled out for attention as a class.

These individuals believed that the few students prone to cheat could probably trace their weakness to lax home and community training, for their dishonesty permeated other areas of living, such as recreations and relationships. But they were inclined to believe the amount

was negligible and that like the mistakes of childhood years, cheating was an evidence of immaturity. They did not see how any student could cheat on a present-day college examination to any extent and yet complete it in the allotted time. Finally, they remarked that “much so-called observation was merely supposition. If teachers had more faith in their students, psychologically, their reaction would be to live up to that faith.”

It appeared, however, that for some students, the desire for a degree, and the sheer inability to control the conditions of obtaining it—possibly a group of causes—led them to yield to the temptation to cheat. Whether it took the form of peeking at notes, texts, cuffs, watches, palms or fingernails, consulting “ponies” or seeking information at meetings of organized groups, the students justified “cribbing” on the basis of the severe competition they had to face.

Rumors of initiates in organized groups being assigned pages of tests to memorize for use in later discussions or tales of sitting-in at post-mortems of tests given earlier in the day or week, upset the “mental equilibrium” of many. They were forced into using some “cribbing” device or into getting advance information. Announcements by the teachers before tests as to the number of A's that could be given—in fact, the system of grading on

the curve—the “unearned” grades given to athletes (and here they overlooked the possibility of intensive “coaching” by means of which the athletes are aided in emergencies by the various athletic associations), and the fancied “changed and indifferent attitudes at colleges since enrollments reached unprecedented heights”; the “pushing around of the G.I.’s because of the indirect payment of their tuition”—these and many other fancied and real grievances came in for a share of comment. As a matter of opinion also, even the responsibility for cheating was laid at the door, not of *students*, but of the colleges: they had raised standards so high that they were impossible for the average student to reach.

Nevertheless, some students recorded indifference, slothful habits, inefficient study techniques, inadequate preparation for college, social motivation and immaturity and inability to grasp content as well as “overwhelming” competition as causes of cheating. Other than to call it weakness, they did not condone dishonesty. Also they noted that grades were “sailing directions” and any distorted record, whatever its cause, rendered a disservice.

While deploring emphasis on grades, rather than on learning *per se*, student comments frequently indicated that grades were the key to success in continuing education, and were of interest to prospective employers “regardless of the field in which they were obtained.” In regard to the latter comment, students do not reflect on how revelatory grades in any field may be of general intelligence, granting the validity of the “consistency of performance” theory.

Much understanding and consideration appeared in students’ observations concerning crowded classrooms, heavy teaching loads, inadequate staffs and laboratory equipment, limited library facilities, delays of publishers in getting out texts, shortage of teachers, and amount of material to be covered in the time allowed, indicating the difficulty of assimilation for some students. There was, in the main, a realization that all colleges were coping with similar problems and situations.

The G.I.’s repeatedly expressed fear of being dropped if grades were not satisfactory, comparing low grades, in some instances, to the “sword of Damocles” hanging over their heads.

The majority of them were on part-time employment while attending college and to make ends meet financially, they were living with relatives. Some found it hard to find a quiet place to study; others mentioned the interference of social activities. There appeared to be a wide range as to the degree of encouragement from the wife or fiancée, who was not too much interested in the education program, and the one, who, if qualified, tried to do the veteran’s homework for him and to keep social activities down to a minimum.

The veterans were appreciative of the opportunity to continue their education, although some do not get the idea of education as a “slow ripening” process. Others have definitely chosen the wrong place for what they are seeking—the rapid, intensive training for a specific job. But only a few entered college with the hope of taking an “extended vacation with pay,” and they faced a rude awakening. There is no harder work than the constant concentration which makes for a cultivated mind, nor any that is more rewarding.

The real problems of the veterans were: obtaining part-time employment, family cares, inadequate housing, rising costs of living, and social distractions. They disliked asking their families to suffer further deprivations after having faced them during the war. A number spoke of increased veterans’ allowances, but indicated also an awareness of other factors involved, and so questioned the efficacy of that method alone in order to attack the complex problems involved in the situation.

These expressed doubt of dishonest students’ ever being college “material” or later taking their places in public affairs. Some thought in terms of knowledge *per se* rather than of grades. Others mentioned “more Sunday schools and fewer movies” as being a necessity in youth training during early years. And there were students who could write: “I am not proud of my grades. They may be D’s but *they are my own.*”

There were genuinely puzzled students who asked: “Of what value is a college education if you have no degree to show for it?” (For them there was no conception of education as permeating all areas of daily living.) “What would you do if you knew others were waiting for your place in college, and that if you failed, you

would be dropped? *It makes us desperate.*" "Only the cream of the crop can possibly remain." "The colleges have raised standards so competition is unbelievably keen." "Honest, dependable people are neglected while clever criminals are admired." "A drowning man will grasp at any aid." "Our society was, and is, built on competition." "With standards so high, will our degrees be worth more in 1950 than if we could have finished before the war?" "Would it dampen your spirits if you were cognizant that a few students knew some questions in advance of a test?" "It's the American way to try to get something for nothing." "I must get my degree—honestly if I can—but *I must get it.*"

Additions to remedies already suggested by students' answers were an honor system, signed statements of not giving or receiving aid on the tests, "stiffer" penalties for cheating, less outside employment, only "Satisfactory" and "Unsatisfactory" as grades, increasing interest in compulsory subjects, more fellowships, rating on merit rather than on "production," grading more on class discussions, stricter proctoring, better counselling services, more essay tests, more federal aid to higher education, and grading on attitude, aptitude, sincerity and effort.

The facile way of meeting the comments of students would be to say that if we were in their place, we would be concerned only with what we did ourselves: we would study conscientiously, take the tests honestly, and accept the results philosophically. But that overlooks their striving for a place in their groups—for recognition. They are so deeply concerned with what their classmates think and do that they dwell in a world apart.

One important implication is the lessening of the tension under which they study. No Hitlerian "strength through joy" here! Notable was the lack of expressions of enjoyment. There was an appreciation of the opportunity to learn, but only as a means to increase ability to earn. The "squalid cash value" of William James obscures other values in education still. Yet Dewey emphasizes, as the most important outcome of education, the desire to continue education: "To lose the joy—is to lose all."

Another important implication is the student's definition of success. Does his perception go no deeper than admiration of "clever

criminals"? Has neglect of emphasis on honesty and dependability brought him to the point of writing: "The American Way is to get something for nothing?" Wholly unknown apparently is the type of success, none the less arresting because of its rarity, shown in "I am not proud of my grades. They may be D's but *they are my own.*"

Classes in "College Citizenship" are needed, not only for living in the present, but as preparation for more effective service in the years ahead. The attitudes expressed in the question: "What good is a college education if you have no degree to show for it?" is encountered frequently. Character is developed, citizenship should become better, and living should be fuller as one becomes more and more at home in the universe. And if the suggestion of these students was followed in regard to more scholarships, the awards might be made on the bases of character, citizenship and ideals of service.

Apropos of the shrinkage of the dollar, inadequate housing, the overwork which precludes creative activity (and this includes creative teaching which requires constant study and reflection), these problems remain as yet unsolved and await cooperative action and solution by citizens able to face issues with realism and integrity. They are not problems confined to students alone, but are basic problems which claim the attention of all Americans.

They may all be obviated without a "close and intimate effect" on this fundamental problem of dishonesty. Some practical aids in addition to those suggested by the students are certain known controls, often overlooked because of crowded conditions and time pressures. These include equivalent forms of a test for adjoining rows so that looking at another's test may prove the "hard way for the transgressor." No "make-up tests" should be alike in content, and it goes without saying, that all tests should be strictly guarded until their administration (all at one time if possible, so no "invidious" comparisons can be made until after all tests are completed). The "post-mortem" will probably always exist—in some form. Strict alternation of seating, constant supervision, assurance of silence, more "weekly quizzes" to reduce the number of long tests, and more essay questions will all help to lessen temptation.



Some re-education also is indicated, for if students entered college without knowing that college men and women are expected to hold certain standards—that there are some things they will neither do nor tolerate—it is time that they become informed before they disqualify themselves for any collegiate competition. Boasting of “getting away with it,” and the “get by at any price” philosophy, call for attention of Student Councils or similar advisory groups. Conversely, the opposite attitudes call for some recognition, a positive emphasis neglected in these hurried days. And these social controls of praise and blame are most potent when they emanate from the students themselves.

Awareness of, and interest in, individual differences, or possibly the very functioning in a competitive society, make it doubtful if students would be satisfied for very long with no finer gradations than “Satisfactory” and “Unsatisfactory” grades. Even for the most discontented, “hope springs eternal in the human breast.” Tomorrow is another day and may bring a better grade.

The replies of the students in this study do not indicate any knowledge on the part of the majority of the positive correlation which is found, in general, between good grades and good class discussions and reports, and also between grades and “intangibles” such as aptitudes, effort and interest, on which they suggest basing grades. The matter of their having full information in regard to colleges’ “raising standards too high for the average student” or “taking and keeping only the cream of the crop” is open to question also. Although a few colleges may have done so in view of crowded conditions and limited faculties and equipment, one cannot “fall into the fallacy of the universal” in regard to *all* colleges’ doing so. In general, American educational institutions have stood ready to aid youth and have rejoiced at the widening of the educational base, regardless of the strain placed upon facilities. The spirit of service is not confined to any one group.

It is rather the G.I.’s themselves, broadened by travel, experience and maturity who, with their more definite purpose, have “raised the curve” and provided severe competition for the

average student entering college from high school. For in spite of their own earlier misgivings about being out of school for several years, the veterans have given an excellent account of themselves, even under the adverse conditions of overwork, crowded housing accommodations and family cares and distractions.

In fairness to them and all students of “college material,” all offenders in the matter of dishonesty should be warned of consequences and on repetition of the offense, dropped. After doubt of guilt is removed, penalties should be immediate and final. The school on any level is not alone responsible for dishonesty, nor can it correct that fault alone. As long as a dichotomy exists between its teachings and the teachings and examples outside of the school, that dichotomy will be reflected in some phases of daily living. For patterns of behavior, actions speak louder than words. Hart points out that only a *community* can produce youth that is “democratic, intelligent, disciplined to freedom, reverent of the goods of life and eager to share in the tasks of the age.”<sup>1</sup> And the community includes *all* of its institutions.

The matter of federal aid in increased amounts also is not so simple as appears at first glance. It is true that all citizens function under several layers of government, that mobility has eradicated state boundaries, that opportunity should not be limited by domicile, and that a national level of literacy must be maintained. The federal government has both rights and responsibilities in regard to educational levels, but there are varying needs which only local citizens can best understand. Education is a joint responsibility and in a democracy, it should be handled jointly.<sup>2</sup> Participation, both financially and administratively, of all citizens having an interest in the matter (and that should include every American) is the democratic way. Control of education has proved too convenient a tool for totalitarian regimes for democracies ever to relax vigilance for any more facile way.

From the students of today come the leaders of tomorrow. The future of America, and pos-

<sup>1</sup> J. K. Hart, *Discovery of Intelligence* (New York: The Century Company, 1924), p. 383.

<sup>2</sup> A. M. Odell, “Federal Aid: A Viewpoint,” *School and Society*, 62 (August 18, 1945), 106-107.

sibly of the world will lie in their hands. From them, too, will come the scientists and scholars who will add to the sum total of human knowledge. These students will be the successors of those great men and women of the past whose

compelling intellectual integrity won the world's admiration. They did not seek to "get something for nothing." "It was not thus they built" but only "on an enduring foundation of constant industry and unquestioned integrity."

## Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

*Graham Junior-Senior High School, Mount Vernon, New York*

### CHARTS, MAPS, POSTERS, OTHER AIDS

*Picture Map of India.* This is an illustrated map, size 50 x 38 inches, decorated with Indian designs and pictures, showing some of the physical features of the country. An insert sheet carrying explanatory text and pictures of types of homes, means of transportation, festival times, and modern trends, accompanies the map. Write to The Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, N. Y.

*Picture Map of Africa.* This is an illustrated map, size 50 x 38 inches, showing border decorations of African designs, and pictures revealing physical features. An insert sheet of explanatory text and also of pictures of native houses, people, occupations, etc., to be colored, cut out, and pasted on the map, accompanies it. Consult the Friendship Press for further information.

*Hammond's Historical Atlas* is a new historical atlas designed for individual student use. Here is a recast of man's political, geographical and historical growth from the time of ancient empires, presented by maps arranged chronologically. The maps are 12 $\frac{1}{4}$  x 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  inches. Write to C. S. Hammond and Company, 88 Lexington Avenue, New York 16, N. Y.

### SLIDES AND FILMSTRIPS

"America's Housing Crisis." Here is a filmstrip (35 mm., black and white, silent) on one of the most pertinent social problems of the days. It traces the history of the housing problem in the United States. It shows the early efforts to correct it and the forces that have opposed public housing. The size and scope of housing needs are outlined. Photographs, car-

toons and original drawings are part of a comprehensive survey in 115 frames. Write to Current History Films, 77 Fifth Avenue, New York 3, N. Y.

"United Nations Charter—Its Structure and Functions." This filmstrip (35 mm., black and white, silent) produced in consultation with the United Nations Office, explains the structure of the U.N. and the functions of its six main bodies from the standpoint of the ideal aims of the charter. *Educational Screen* calls it, "the clearest and most vivid explanation on films of the United Nations Organization issued so far." Special charts, drawings and photos are part of the 85-frame, full-length treatment. Current History Films will submit more information on request.

### MOVIE FILMS

"Land of Liberty"—Carefully selected features, shorts and newsreels (16 mm., sound, eight reels) tell the thrilling story of the men and women who struggled to attain and defend American freedom. For further information write to Association Films, 347 Madison Avenue, New York 17, N. Y.

"Powers of Congress"—This is a one-reel, 16-mm., sound, color or black-and-white film. A fantasy is employed in this film to define and explain the powers of Congress. Mr. Williams drops off to sleep for a few minutes, to find himself confronted with a world in which Congress has been suspended and federal authority dissolved. When he awakes from his dream, he has a better understanding of his own responsibility in the selection of that body. For a complete catalog, write to Coronet Instruc-

tional Films, Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Illinois.

"Food—Weapon in War and Peace"—The purpose of this film is to show the methods which man has devised to preserve foods, and the part that foods play in our daily life. This film (16 mm., sound) discusses and illustrates the storing, salting, canning, dehydrating and freezing methods of food preservation. The reasons for food spoilage are explained. Write to Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41st Street, New York 17, N. Y., for more details.

"Our Shrinking World"—This film briefly surveys the high lights in the history of transportation and communication, and tells how these achievements have brought people together in our shrinking world. The concluding sequence stresses the fact that these inventions in transportation and communication have made it necessary that all people learn to live together peacefully. This 16-mm., sound film is recommended for junior and senior high schools. *Young America Films Catalogue* will give more details.

"Our Bill of Rights"—This film (16 mm., sound, two reels) presents the arguments pro and con on the part of our founders for adding the first ten amendments to our Constitution.

"Our Constitution"—This film (16 mm., sound, two reels) depicts those dramatic events

immediately leading to the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia in 1787.

"Our Declaration of Independence"—In this film (16 mm., sound, two reels) such immortal characters as Washington, Jefferson, Adams, Patrick Henry, Richard Henry Lee and many others play their vital roles in dramatizing the events from 1763 to 1776.

"Our Louisiana Purchase"—In this film (16 mm., sound, two reels) the events incident to the purchase of the 1,000,000 square miles of Louisiana in 1803 are vividly presented.

"Our Monroe Doctrine"—This film (16 mm., sound, two reels) presents the immediate events which led to the issuance of this important doctrine.

"Our Flag"—In this film (16 mm., sound, one reel) the history and evolution of our national emblem is dramatized. For the films listed above, write to Films, Incorporated, 330 W. 42 Street, New York 18, N. Y.

"Boundary Lines"—This is a film (16 mm., sound, 11 minutes) on intergroup relations. A completely different animated film technique is used in this approach to the problem of intergroup relations. The theme concerns the invisible "boundary lines" of color, origin, wealth, and poverty, which often result in fear and suspicion, and finally in war. For more information, write to International Film Foundation, 1600 Broadway, New York City.

## News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

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### THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Curriculum revision is a much overworked term. At a recent meeting to plan the program for a summer workshop, one administrator urged that the phrase be omitted from the agenda because, he said, the teachers in his area had had "curriculum revision" thrust upon them so steadily during the past few years that they were thoroughly sick of it. Like so many educational problems, this one has been worked over and experimented with a thousand times,

to the point of fatigue. Yet its basic importance cannot be denied or ignored; an educational system is no better than its program of studies. The school with the finest equipment and teaching staff, the most modern of buildings and efficient administration, still fails of its purpose unless it provides the kind of training its pupils need. This is too obvious to arouse discussion but it leads directly to the question of determining what pupils *do* need. Here the field is wide open for argument.



Certain general ideas have come to be commonly accepted in the field of secondary school curriculum: it is the school's duty to prepare pupils to be good citizens in a highly complex society; recognition must be made of the widely varying abilities, interests, backgrounds and future plans of pupils; the secondary school is the last formal education most pupils will ever receive before they take their places as independent members of society; the secondary school should provide educational opportunity for all youth, and not for a selected portion of them. Any secondary school curriculum which does not take these principles into account as fundamentals must be prepared to show it can justify the use of public money in its support.

When the leading article in a prominent educational magazine advocates a curriculum which appears to ignore nearly all the principles mentioned above, it is of sufficient moment to call for comment. In the January issue of *The School Review*, Clarence H. Faust of Stanford University and Reuben Frodin of the University of Chicago discussed the content of a curriculum which they had recommended for a private secondary school for girls. If their proposals were meant to be applicable simply to an exclusive school for youth of superior ability and wealthy background, they could be accepted without too much concern. But the authors do not indicate that the school studied was necessarily of that type, and, which is more important, they advocate their plan as desirable for secondary schools in general, public as well as private. This constitutes a challenge which it is difficult to refuse.

It is the thesis of the article that secondary education today has been diffused, watered down, and allowed to deteriorate to an undesirable degree. It considers that the chief causes of this condition are departmentalization, the elective system, vocational training, and the dependence on textbooks. It rejects all types of "practical" subjects, such as consumer education, business training, homemaking, physical education, and manual training, as unworthy of high school diploma credit, and relegates them to the extra-curriculum where the student could elect to take them after the regular school hours, along with football, philately and social dancing. The authors feel that the

only sound purpose of secondary schooling is to provide all pupils with a "liberal education," that is, the liberal arts subjects which form the core of studies at Columbia College, Harvard College, and the College of the University of Chicago. The basic reasoning is the same—that only a thorough grounding in the liberal arts, sciences and humanities can produce a really educated citizen.

In line with this assumption, the authors of the article propose a single curriculum for all the secondary school pupils. This consists of: four years of the "humanities," that is, courses combining literature, composition, art and music; four years of social studies, made up of two years of world history and two of "American Institutions"; two years of a foreign language, with a third year optional; one and a half years of algebra and a year of plane geometry; a year of biology, and a year and a half of the physical sciences. If the pupil does not accept the option of an additional year of foreign language study for his sixteenth unit, he may be conceded the opportunity of taking one of the "practical" subjects in which he is particularly interested.

It may possibly be true that a rigid liberal arts curriculum such as this could be justified for a highly selective private school. That it can seriously be advanced as suitable for tax-supported schools seeking to serve the entire range of youth seems hardly credible.

In theory, of course, such a curriculum would provide a sound intellectual training, and those who received it would then be better prepared to begin their vocational training or to learn something about everyday living. In practice it would violate most of the conditions imposed upon the schools by actual facts. It ignores, for example, the painful truth that at least half of our secondary school population is mentally unequipped to handle such a curriculum. This portion of our youth has neither the intellectual ability nor the intellectual curiosity to pursue successfully courses in algebra, geometry, foreign languages or chemistry.

In its scornful rejection of courses in vocations, consumer education, homemaking and so forth, the proposed curriculum ignores also the fact that the majority of high school youth suffer from certain economic pressures which

require them to obtain jobs upon leaving school. While it might be highly desirable for them to complete a liberal arts course and follow this with a year or two of business or trade specialization, most young people cannot afford it. They must be ready to support themselves and perhaps contribute to their family's needs by the time they are 18. To insist that they try to do this without any training in the skills which employers require is to close one's eyes to hard facts.

Conceivably there may be a favored few young people for whom such things as manners, shopping, budgeting, dressing, homemaking and hygiene can be safely entrusted to home instruction and "association with fellow students and teachers," as Faust and Frodin recommend, but every public school teacher knows that this is not true of the majority. Far too many young people come from sordid and depressed backgrounds and if they are to learn wise and sensible ways of living they must be taught them as they are taught to read and write.

With reference to the authors' strictures against the use of textbooks "which present in an insipid and predigested form what it is supposed a student should memorize in these fields," it is worth while to quote their recommendations for the teaching of history. "Instead of textbook materials students should read such things as Herodotus on the conflict of the Greeks and the Persians, Thucydides on the wars of the Greek city states, and Plutarch's *Lives*." The first year of American history should center around critical decisions in our past, and to study these, "students should read the writings of Americans which record the debates over these issues: Franklin, Paine, Jefferson, Hamilton, and Adams, for example, and Calhoun, Lincoln, and important decisions of the Supreme Court." Few high school teachers in the social studies can help but be struck by the lack of realism in these suggestions. Granted that such materials are indeed the best sources for the true study of history, and that a slavish reliance on a textbook is stultifying and harmful, the fact remains that the reading ability and intellectual capacity of the majority of high school pupils make the wide use of original sources impossible.

It is not the purpose of the present criticism to decry the value or importance of a cultural or liberal arts education. Iron which is capable of receiving a true temper is surely the better for it, but all metals cannot take it. They must be shaped and treated as best suits their own qualities, so that their maximum usefulness will be reached. It would be a foolish chemist who attempted to turn them all into hard steel. In short, to say that the single purpose of the secondary school should be to provide intellectual discipline through a liberal (that is, a "classical" type) education is to turn back the clock 50 years and deny the obvious fact that secondary education is now the birthright of all the children of all the people.

It seems regrettable that there should be serious advocacy of its restriction again to a favored few. It is true that the secondary school curriculum has "deteriorated" in a narrow sense and it is an excellent thing for the nation that it has, for in doing so it has kept millions of young people in school who otherwise would have dropped out after the eighth grade as their parents did. To compel them to attend school by law and then to feed them only a strict diet which they cannot digest would be to invite disaster. Our high school curriculum does need improvement in a great many ways, but surely not in the direction indicated by the writers of the article in question.

#### SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE NINTH AND TENTH GRADES

A discussion of curriculum content with reference to the social studies naturally brings to mind one of the problems on which there is at least agreement. This is the question of what kind of social studies should be offered in the ninth and tenth grades. Practice varies widely, and so does theory. Among the subjects commonly taught at these levels are world history, civics, geography, and various divisions and combinations of the three. In some schools the tenth year is a full world history course, and in others it is divided into two half-year courses in early and modern European history. Some may offer Latin American or Far Eastern history as half-year alternatives; others may spread the world history offerings over three terms. In some, world history is required of all

pupils in the tenth grade, while in others it is required of pupils in certain curricula only.

The term "civics" embodies many different types of subject matter. It may be a course in local government and citizenship, or in national government, or both. It may include a survey of occupations and so become a course in vocational guidance, or it may be used as an orientation course in how to study, how to adjust oneself to the school and its program, and other points of school citizenship and personal success. It may contain any combination of these or other factors, and be one year or half a year in length. It may or may not be required of all ninth graders. The permutations and combinations are quite numerous.

There is obviously much less general acceptance of a common pattern of studies at these levels of the social sciences than is true of the other major subject fields. This is probably a good thing up to a point, since it indicates that change and, we hope, progress are taking place. Yet there is a danger that constant experimentation may become futile and circular, and be indulged in simply for its own sake and the pleasure of novelty. Too wide a divergence in practice is confusing to pupils also, particularly in times when transfers from school to school are very common. Many schools have evolved elements for their freshman and sophomore social studies which they have found practicable, popular, and worth while, and which they see no further reason to change. Their findings ought to be made available to others who are still groping for a thoroughly satisfactory solution to the problem.

This department will welcome communications from social studies teachers whose schools have found some type of material or organization in the ninth or tenth years to be particularly satisfactory. It will be glad to publish such information and to serve as a clearing house for the exchange of ideas in this field from which others may profit.

#### NOTES

Many teachers may not be aware that

UNESCO has its own official newspaper, the *UNESCO Monitor*. The third number, issued in November, presented an impressive review of the first year's activities. To read it brings amazement at the scope and imagination of the organization's initial enterprises, and the conviction that if only UNESCO can be left unhindered to carry out the projects it has begun or contemplated the world has a bright future ahead of it after all. Its work, past and future, deserves much more publicity than it has received. Probably it will continue to lack this assistance because its activity is essentially slow and peaceful rather than spectacular and calamitous.

According to the National Opinion Research Center, now associated with the University of Chicago, the American people generally subscribe to the basic principles of international cooperation that underlie the work of UNESCO, but cannot yet bring themselves to accept many of the specific applications which naturally follow. Fear is the cause of this contradictory attitude. People may admit the desirability, for example, of a strong international police force, but at the same time insist that this country must maintain an even stronger force of its own. It is difficult for any people to go forward effectively while looking back over their shoulders to see who is pursuing them.

The December *News Bulletin* of the Institute of International Education is devoted largely to articles on student exchanges between the United States and Europe. There has been apparently a sharp reduction in the number of European students coming to American colleges during the past year. If this is true, statistics being uncertain, it can be attributed in great part to the international monetary exchange situation, which makes it increasingly difficult for foreign students to come here. The Mundt Bill before Congress would give the State Department an opportunity to present an extensive program of educational exchanges aided by government funds.



## Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by J. IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

*The Story of American Railroads.* By Stewart H. Holbrook. New York: Crown, 1947. Pp. x, 468. Illustrated. \$4.50.

This is the story of the world's greatest transportation system, an important business and a significant factor in the growth and expansion of the United States. It is also a story for anyone who has ever been thrilled by the sight of a mighty locomotive roaring over the rails or by a far-distant whistle piercing the quiet night.

Stewart Holbrook's book is a labor of love. There are few, if any, details of the vast story of American railroading that do not fascinate him, and few incidents connected with the history of rail transportation in the United States have been left out of this comprehensive account. Holbrook relates details of the small, local roads built by countless communities that were smitten with "railroad fever" and the eventual merger of these lines into large systems. He includes the record of the trans-continental routes. There are also sketches of the most famous personalities of the railways: Commodore Vanderbilt, Dan'l Drew and Jim Hill, among others. Nor does he slight the unpleasant narrative of brigandage and corruption which brings up a discussion of the movement of protest against the railroads with the resulting governmental regulation.

Although some of the facts may be familiar, Holbrook's knack for unearthing bits of rare and diverting information is amazing. He not only retells the usual account of railroad construction, but also records the exciting episode of building a two-mile tunnel through Stampede Pass in seven days less than twenty-eight months. Here can be found not only economic development and the growth of great smoky cities but also "The Biography of A Flagstop," a charming piece of real Americana. Railroad "brass hats," from J. Edgar Thompson to Robert R. Young, appear on these pages, and so do those who actually keep the trains rolling—the route surveyor, pullman porter, switchman,

news-butcher, engineer, fireman, conductor, and other heroes usually passed over in favor of the big names.

That this is a convenient source of colorful information on any aspect of American railroads, from land grants to labor conditions to technical improvements, goes without saying. Mr. Holbrook has gathered his wealth of details from histories of individual roads and from personal reminiscences of actual participants in railroad history; moreover, there are few authors who have explored the twenty volumes of the *Dictionary of American Biography* as carefully as this one.

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*The South During Reconstruction, 1865-1877.*

By E. Merton Coulter. Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana State University Press and the Littlefield Fund for Southern History of the University of Texas, 1947. Pp. xii, 426. \$5.00.

This book is Volume VIII of A History of the South, a ten-volume series "designed to present a thoroughly balanced history of all the complex aspects of the South's culture from 1607 to the present."

With several generations to soften the feelings between North and South, we must agree with Mr. Coulter's thesis from the start: "The Civil War was not worth its cost. It freed the slaves, upset a social and economic order, strengthened the powers of the national government, and riveted tighter upon the South a colonial status under which it had long suffered. What good the war produced would have come with time in an orderly way; the bad would not have come at all."

Here is a detailed account of the hardships endured by the South during the Reconstruction period, well documented with references to

Southern newspapers and journals of the 1860's and 70's, as well as more general sources. The book ends with a "Critical Essay on Authorities."

Mr. Coulter explains that the South, as the loser, suffered more than the North in the social, political, and economic upheaval after the war. But the North, too, was affected, and many of its people resented the competition of the freed man in industry as bitterly as the South decried the new social status of its erstwhile slaves. Moreover, the North was in position to dictate policies and for many years the South labored under Radical rule. When efforts to reconstruct its agriculture under free labor were thwarted, the South retaliated through organizations such as the Ku Klux Klan. But there was little it could do to combat Northern discrimination in industry and transportation.

The hardships of war and its aftermath affected religious, literary, and other cultural aspects of life in the South. Writers were bitter in their denunciation of humiliations imposed by the conquerors. Mr. Coulter's study is considerably enlivened by recorded fact and opinion of the times.

The Reconstruction was of tremendous importance in the shaping of American history. In spite of bitterness, dissension, and violence, it provided a foundation for a future reunited nation.

MILDRED BAIR LISSFELT

Abington, Pennsylvania

*From Slavery to Freedom, A History of the American Negroes.* By John Hope Franklin. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1947. Pp. xv, 622, xlii. Trade edition, \$5.00; text edition, \$3.75.

This history of the American Negro is a sociological study of the race problem in the United States and its implications in our approach to world peace. In effect, Dr. Franklin asks: How can the American conception of the Four Freedoms be reconciled with present treatment of the Negro?

Not all Negroes were barbaric, as is often claimed. In West Africa, at the beginning of the fifteenth century, where most of the slaving occurred, civilization had progressed to "within some measurable distance of Europe" and the

"removal of the flower of African manhood left the continent impotent, stultified, and dazed." Many captured Negroes committed suicide rather than face slavery in a foreign land.

Beaten and oppressed, denied even the rudiments of education for generations, Negroes who were freed during the Civil War required time to adjust themselves. They were bound to make mistakes. Dr. Franklin wonders if the white man would have behaved differently, had he been herded into ghettos, mobbed and murdered without trial by jury, discriminated against by restaurants, schools, industry, when suddenly set free.

In this book we find an explanation of the white man's treatment of the Negro as well as the Negro's resentment and distrust of him. Slavery, in the beginning, was based on economic necessity, but justified orally by high motives. Thus, by enslaving "heathen" Negroes, whites could "Christianize" them. But once Negroes became Christians, other excuses had to be invented.

Negroes have proved themselves capable in many fields. When opportunity presented itself they became humanitarians, sociologists, historians, scientists, athletes, musicians, artists, authors and the like. In times of crisis, they have volunteered for combat duty in large numbers and have won high praise for conduct on the battlefield.

With the organization of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and other Negro societies, and the wider distribution of Negro newspapers and magazines, Negroes have achieved a new self-consciousness and pride and have demanded their rights rather than requested them. Since World War II, Negroes look more and more to world organizations to help in the solution of their problems at home. "American Negroes, one of the world's most important minority groups, wanted relief from the discrimination, segregation, and oppression that the world's 'arsenal of democracy' had imposed upon them."

It is impossible to do justice to this lengthy and well-constructed history of a race in a brief review. The student who desires a better understanding of the Negro and his present and future place in the United States and in the world, will find in this book and its compre-

hensive bibliography a source of valuable and almost inexhaustible material.

MILDRED BAIR LISSFELT

Abington, Pennsylvania

*Pageant of Europe.* By Raymond Phineas Stearns. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1947. Pp. 1032. \$5.00.

Keeping in mind that "this book is designed primarily for college survey courses in modern European history," the reviewer must confine his critique to the limits of that purpose. That Professor Stearns has accomplished his intent in providing interpretative and explanatory materials to supplement the chronological textbook treatment of the pageant of Europe's history from the Renaissance to the present day, there can be no doubt.

The scope of his material is sufficiently wide to help the student secure an interrelated mind's-eye view of the contemporary political, economic, philosophic, and cultural in nearly every major historical period. His technique in condensation of source materials seeks to keep readability and reliability of emphasis constantly in view. But again keeping in mind this volume's purpose, the casual browser is not likely to be enticed. It is a students' reference and satisfies that design admirably.

Perhaps the author is modest in declaring that the book is "not for the research scholar." His careful citations of selections and concise prefatory remarks to each section would provide the research student with a reliable digest of expository comments to help him develop an interpretation of that era.

To present other than reprints of papers of state and church in the earlier centuries is not an easy task. Yet the author has managed to delve into highly selected primary source material from writers of the day or from trustworthy annotations or anthologies of later writers. There is no evidence of any special bias in the author's choice of selections or his manner of excerpting them other than that he cannot mask the basic interest in political development throughout his work.

Despite the diversity of his offerings in literature, science, and general trends in philosophy in the earlier centuries, Professor Stearns becomes stingy in this respect from World War I

to date. Selections from this era are almost wholly academic in nature, being extracts from documents of state. There are many dependable contemporary writers whose expressions of opinion might have been included to add flavor and crystallize diagnosis of an era when dictators challenged democracy and led the world into social revolution.

A book of this kind clarions the dire need for a companion volume adapted in content and readability for secondary school use.

ALBERT R. BRINKMAN

East Orange High School  
East Orange, New Jersey

*One World in the Making.* By William G. Carr. New York: Ginn and Company, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. v, 114. \$1.20.

Facilitating the understanding of the United Nations Charter is the purpose of this second edition of *One World in the Making*. The book is divided into three parts. The first explains in very simple language the importance of the Charter and the functions and operations of the six main parts of the United Nations organization.

Less simply written than the first, Part Two presents the text of the United Nations Charter in the middle column of pages 54 through 102. On each side of this column are explanations of the text, which include the clarification of passages and the interpretation of words having an unusual or special meaning. The second part concludes with an index to the United Nations Charter and to the Statutes of the International Court.

Part III contains a series of study aids and questions and a selected, classified bibliography.

The illustrations are varied and unusual. For example, the cover of the book is decorated with a chain of seven links, each enclosing a symbol—e.g. the four vertical lines symbolizing the Four Freedoms flag, the seal of the Secretariat, the sign of the International Court of Justice, etc. The inside of the front as well as of the back cover contains a map. The first shows the places of the historic events which led to the forming of the United Nations and the second indicates the locations of the nations represented at the United Nations at San Francisco.

Other types of illustration are cartoons, pho-



tographs, signatures from facsimiles of the Charter, symbols, charts showing channels of authority and a floor plan.

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

*Russia: The Giant That Came Last.* By Joshua Kunitz. New York: Dodd, Mead and Co., 1947. Pp. 413. \$5.00.

It is good news when there appears a readable history of Russia, lively in anecdote, sound in factual content, and fairly objective in point of view.

The author is an American, born in Russia, who has made an extensive study of Russian literature and history and is thus able to draw upon a great variety of source material. He divides his book into two sections. The first covers the years up to 1825. The second takes the story through the golden age of the nineteenth century and into the twentieth century as far as Lenin's victory in 1917.

The first section gives a brief account of the earliest days of the kingdom of Muscovy, but does not attempt to give the usual chronological survey of events. Instead, it selects for special emphasis a half-dozen famous periods and describes the forces at work in each. There are excellent accounts of the struggle of Ivan the Dread with the landed aristocracy, of the efforts of Catherine the Great to introduce French culture in St. Petersburg, of the resistance of the people to the Napoleonic invasion, and finally of the unsuccessful revolt of the Decembrists. Each story is told vividly.

The second section has particular value in providing the reader with the background necessary to understand some of the present policies of Russia. It traces the many phases of the nineteenth century revolutionary movement, showing how at first Herzen and the Socialists tried to follow a European pattern of reform, but how later they were repudiated by the Slavophiles. Gradually other revolutionary programs were devised, and the doctrines of Marx gained acceptance. Out of this century-long movement there emerged the figure of Nicholas Lenin. His story comes as a vivid climax to the century that had preceded him. The account of his early life in Russia, of his work with fellow exiles in Switzerland, and of his return in 1917 form one of the best parts

of the book. Of special interest are the quotations from his writings on such matters as limited membership in the Communist Party and other policies hard for westerners to understand.

All teachers—and many twelfth-grade students—will find this book interesting to read. Dr. Kunitz's interpretations are based upon careful research and sympathetic understanding of the Russian people.

ALLEGRA WOODWORTH

The Shipley School  
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania

*Woodrow Wilson: A Biography for Young People.* By Alden Hatch. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1947. Pp. 280. Illustrated. \$3.00.

We needed a biography of Woodrow Wilson written for young people. The youths of the generation that lives after him regard him as an enlightened idealist in a sort of vague and ethereal sense that leaves them rather cold. What has been written about him fails to stir their imagination.

This biographer makes Woodrow Wilson a real and likable person. Talks with people who knew the Wilson family when they lived at Augusta, Georgia, and later at Columbia, South Carolina, in the Civil War days, gave the author much information about the President's boyhood. This is new material. There are stories about Tommy Wilson's impressions of Civil War devastation and reconstruction government absurdities. He helped his father to find just the right word for his sermons. As a student, achievement in the debating society gave him the same thrill that excellence on the gridiron gives some boys. The biography tells of Wilson's exuberance and Irish wit, the football team he coached at Wesleyan, and his popularity with students and faculty at Princeton. We also have the personal side of his life as a lover, husband, and father.

The better-known phases of his life—his battles to liberalize Princeton, his reforms as governor of New Jersey, the Baltimore Democratic Convention with Bryan fighting for Wilson's nomination, The New Freedom, World War I, and the losing fight for the Senate's ratification of the League of Nations clause in the peace treaty—are told in a rapidly moving,

pleasing style. Careful documentation, not too tedious for young readers, adds value to the book. The characterization of the leaders and interpretation of the problems of the time are sound.

Students of the period may take issue with some parts, as for instance, the description of Henry Cabot Lodge as a "lonely, embittered, implacable old man" (page 240). But on the whole the biography fittingly complements our school histories and humanizes one of our greatest Americans.

*The Lands of Middle America.* By C. E. Castaneda, Eleanor C. Delaney, Prudence Cutright, and W. W. Charters. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947. Pp. 383. Illustrated. \$2.00.

This is a school book, about the fifth grade level, written in a fascinating manner and quite informative. Much of it is narrative and dialogue describing the experiences of eager boys and girls traveling through the lands of Middle America.

The contents include the islands of the Caribbean, Mexico, and the countries of Central America. The book tells how the people dress, how they make a living, and what the big cities are like. The legends, the Indian religion, and the coming of the Spaniards are explained to the visiting children. As one reads, he gets the feeling that the people, although different in some ways, are essentially like their neighbors to the north.

Black and white drawings illustrate the narrative. At the end of each chapter are "Things to Remember" and "Things to Do."

*The Sun Was Darkened.* By Alice Franklin Bryant. Boston: Chapman and Grimes, 1947. Pp. 262. Illustrated. \$3.00.

The author, the wife of a former provincial governor and coconut planter in the Philippines, writes about the effects of the Japanese invasion. An almost idyllic existence gives way to fright and confusion as the people await the enemy landing. She and her neighbors retreat through the beautiful jungle-covered mountains to escape capture. They are discovered through fifth-column informers and experience the privations of three internment camps.

The book gives a truthful description of the plight of civilians in an invaded country and of the reactions of the people, with shattered nerves and empty stomachs. Anybody would steal when loved ones faced a death of starvation. Crowded propinquity bred loathing and hatred among persons who had been congenial under normal conditions.

The style is readable but not distinguished. The story is pleasingly told and through all her trying situations the author retained a nice sense of humor.

This is not an atrocity book. The tragic effects of the invasion are depicted as being caused by war itself; not because of the diabolical tendencies of the invader. The Japanese soldiers carried out orders as any nation's soldiers would. To some the duties of administering a concentration camp were revolting. Others were heartless. Our young people, who have been subjected to the hatreds engendered during the war years, need books like this one.

*The Pageant of Japanese History.* By Marion May Dilts. New York: Longmans, Green, and Company, 1947. Second edition. Pp. xvi, 418. \$4.00.

This book contains a wealth of general information and presents an intelligent view of Japanese history. The author gathered her material first hand through extensive visits to Japan, a fact that makes *The Pageant of Japanese History* doubly interesting to the reader and more authentic than the usual general history. Extensive footnotes are used, but the references are mostly to secondary rather than primary sources of information. However, the foreword states that the book is intended for the general reader and for students in senior high schools and colleges. Therefore to enter into any great detail of outstanding events is obviously not within the scope and purpose of this volume.

The main emphasis is on social and cultural history. Even though there is but slight attention given to political history, the author succeeds in clearly showing how and why the Japanese arrived at the stage of government in which they found themselves in the years prior to World War II. This is of great importance to Americans, especially since we are primarily

responsible for the immediate future of Japan. Some clue to that future may be found through an intelligent understanding of the past.

*The Pageant of Japanese History* is worthy of attention by anyone who is interested in Japanese history and concerned about the future in the Far East. It is well written in an easily readable, straightforward style. It is beautifully illustrated, and contains not only a very helpful glossary and dictionary of Japanese proper names, but an outline chart of Japanese history. The author, sympathetic to Japan and the Japanese, poses some profound and highly disturbing questions.

One is impressed by the fact that from its beginnings Japan has been an imitator, borrowing heavily from China. A century has soon elapsed since Commodore Perry opened Japan, and in that relatively short space of time the Japanese superimposed all the trappings of Western culture upon an Oriental society. The results, of course, were disastrous, not only for Japan but for the entire world.

The author traces the course of Japanese history from its earliest beginnings through the years to 1947. Every aspect of Japanese life is described, and the cultural influence of China is emphasized. Especially vivid are the descriptions of life in the court and in the country. The development of the various classes of society and the struggle of rival clans for power are adequately treated.

Throughout the volume the role of religion and of the emperor are stressed. This is a matter of fundamental importance in arriving at any understanding of the Japanese character. A religion of loyalty evolved through centuries of ancestral cult, and this was further intensified through a series of civil wars. Though the religious dignity of the throne increased, the emperor was given little opportunity for leadership, but was used as a front by the more powerful groups in the country. The living deity was made invisible to the multitude and the people became accustomed to the real authority being wielded by officials other than the emperor. This fact was wisely seized upon by the Allied Powers and by General MacArthur and it undoubtedly has made the task of occupation less difficult.

As a result of the opening of Japan after two

centuries of isolation, the Japanese realized that only by presenting a strongly united front to the West could Japan hope to survive. The result was the Meiji Restoration. The granting of a constitution was something new and foreign to the Japanese way of thinking. Yet, like armies, navies, and huge industrial establishments, it was something modern nations had, so Japan had to have one too. Contacts with the West and comparison with their resources forced the Japanese into a realization of their own limited resources.

To be a Great Power, Japan had to expand, and came to regard East Asia as her sphere of influence. After three successful wars, Japan found that what she considered her rightful winnings had been pared down by the stronger Western Powers. Added to this disappointment was the humiliating failure of her proposal at the Paris Peace Conference that the principle of racial equality be admitted. In spite of notable achievements, Japan drifted into an undeclared war in China, and this led step by step to an undeclared war against the West with its consequent tragic results.

WALLACE R. KLINGER

Hartwick College  
Oneonta, New York

#### PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Edited by R. T. SOLIS-COHEN  
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*Manual for the Preparation of Term Reports for High School Students.* By N. William Newsom and John H. Pendergrast. Denver, Colorado: Sage Books, Inc., 1716 View Point Road, Denver 14, Colorado, 1947. Pp. 30. 65 cents.

In preparing their term reports, high school students have in this pamphlet a splendid guide to selecting a topic, locating and analyzing source materials, and outlining and organizing the report. The manual also contains a brief bibliography.

*1947 Report of the Professional Ethics Committee of the National Education Committee.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association Headquarters Office, 1947. Pp. 64. Single copies free upon request. Additional copies 25 cents each, with discounts for various quantity lots.

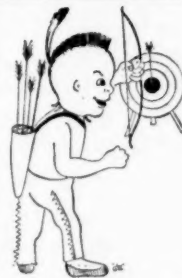


In this report, are a summary of the activities of the Committee during the year 1946-1947 and 26 codes of ethics which might suggest to educators ways of improving their own professional code.

A problem which has recently engaged the attention of teachers is "Should the Teaching Profession Have One Code or Many?" Those who advocate one code believe that a single code makes for unity within the profession. On the other hand, there are those who prefer a code adapted to their own group which consists not of generalities but of specific standards, rules, and regulations.

*In Spite of Difficulties.* Annual Report June 30, 1947, of Associated Boards for Christian Colleges in China. New York: Associated Boards for Christian Colleges in China, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 20.

China's 13 Christian colleges include Cheeloo University, Fukien Christian University, Ginling College, Hangchow Christian University, Hua Chung University, Hwa Nan College, Lingnan University, University of Nanking, St. John's University, University of Shanghai,



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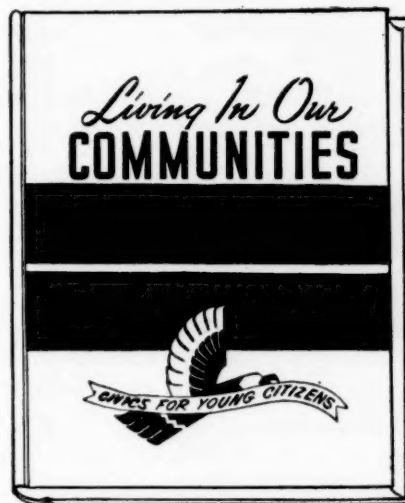
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Soochow University, West China Union University, and Yenching University. During the academic year 1946-1947, these colleges waged a successful battle over the ordeals of hunger, poverty, inadequate equipment, and overcrowded living conditions. Underfed and overworked, the faculties faithfully struggled to continue their important work. On the other hand so great is the Chinese hunger for education that, in spite of the fact that the enrollment of the Chinese Christian colleges had reached an all-time high, it represents only one-tenth of the students who applied for admission. This Report makes a plea for the support of an undeniably worthy cause.

The illustrations include a map showing the location of the Chinese Christian colleges and some very interesting photographs.

*The Manual of Standards and Directory of Private Home Study Schools.* By J. S. Noffsinger, Editor. Washington 6, D. C.: Published by the National Home Study Council, 1947. Pp. 48. 3 cent stamp.

The home-study schools cater to economically ambitious persons who seek to improve their training in the various vocations. This handbook discusses the place and function of home study. It offers an historical sketch and the By-laws of the National Home Study Council, presents standards for private home study schools and includes lists of home-study courses and of the approved schools in which they are given.

*Career Opportunities in Aviation. A Handbook of Vocational Information.* Washington 6, D. C.: National Council of Technical Schools, 1947. Pp. 31. 15 cents.

Intended for reference use by vocational advisers and by persons interested in career opportunities in aviation, this handbook indicates primarily the initial positions available and the special knowledge and skills they require.

The field of aviation as a whole and the nature of the activities in its various branches are presented to the reader. In addition, each branch of aviation is described. The reader is given some idea of its history, present status, and anticipated future.

The occupations in each branch of aviation are listed and described. Some are occupations

peculiar to aviation. Others occur also in other fields, e.g., accounting, purchasing, advertising, etc. In general, aviation occupations are found in employment abroad, in manufacturing, in airlines, in fixed base operations, in military aviation, in the Civil Aeronautics Administration, and in aviation schools as instructors.

*Cooperatives in School and Community. A Teacher's Guide.* Prepared jointly by Workshop on Organization and Administration of Rural Education, Teachers College, Columbia University and State Curriculum Workshop, University of Wisconsin, and State-wide Committee on Cooperatives of the Wisconsin Cooperative Education Planning Program, Madison, Wisconsin. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 84. 90 cents.

Cooperatives are a sufficiently important force in American life that no young person can be considered properly informed unless he knows something about the history, purposes, organization and operation of cooperatives.

This *Teacher's Guide* provides authentic information about cooperatives and shows how this information can be used in the school curriculum. Part I deals with cooperatives and their organization. Part II shows how schools include cooperatives in the curriculum. Parts I and II are especially useful to teachers, administrators, and supervisors who are interested in teaching current problems. Part III presents the Wisconsin Resource Unit which provides teachers responsible for organizing teaching units.

The pamphlet includes references selected for pupils, those chosen for teachers, other sources of information such as The National Grange, publications of the Farm Credit Administration, bulletins of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and a list of attractive-looking sound films. For each film the reader is given the title, viewing time, millimeters, color or not, and a brief summary of its content.

*The Provisional Constitution of February 20, 1947, and the Declaration of Rights.* New York: Polish Research and Information Service, 1947. Pp 15.

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sued by the Polish Research Information Service, this booklet contains two documents: The Declaration of Rights and Liberties and the Provisional Constitution. With these documents Poland began the setting up of a new form of government. They are binding only until the Constituent Diet has adopted a new and permanent constitution.

Although it is a propaganda agency for the Polish government, the Polish Research Information Service, in this instance, has done a service to the American public by making these documents available in English.

*The Public Be Served.* New York: Published by the National Association of Manufacturers, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 22.

As an example of an attractive public relations release, this leaflet provides publicity favorable to NAM and its policies. It undertakes to explain what NAM is, its history, its accomplishments in World War II and in the fields of foreign commerce and world trade, of human relations, and labor. Its beliefs, objectives, and operations are part of this story. Sketches, below the text, above it, and in the margins, add interest and variety to the printed material.

*Social Travel.* By Edward G. Olsen. Philadelphia: Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, Inc., 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 46.

Social travel, a technique in intercultural education, serves to motivate socialized behavior, in the opinion of the author. He states that the key to valid teaching methods lies in providing situations for pleasant learning through living. The devices recommended for related groups in sympathetic contact are documentary materials, audio-visual aids, resource visitors, interviews, camping, service projects, work experience and field trips. This pamphlet is devoted to a number of field trips held in many localities and at all school levels.

*Health Interests of Children.* Report of a Research Study of Health Interests and Needs of Children as a Basis for Health Instruction—Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve, Denver Public Schools. Denver, Colorado: Denver Public Schools, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. x, 121.

The health research committee set out to dis-

cover the interests and the needs of pupils as a basis for providing the most meaningful health experiences of boys and girls, and also to find out at what grade level those experiences should be provided. The committee has as its objective the construction of a health program that would be continuous, coordinated, and important to young people.

The illustrations include charts, check-lists, and 267 graphs. A bibliography is included under the heading "Resource Materials."

*The Darien Scheme.* By George Pratt Insh. Historical Association General Series: G 5. London: The Historical Association, 1947. Pp. 23. One shilling.

"The Company of Scotland Trading to Africa and the Indies" was established in 1695 by an Act of the Scottish Parliament as a result of three different influences: the Scottish desire to set up a Scottish colony in America, the work of a group of English and Scotch merchants, and the interest of the native Scotch woolen merchants in developing trade with Africa.

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The writer shows the significant relationship of the Company to the Union of England and Scotland and to the history contemporaneous with its existence. A bibliography is included following the text.

*Structure of the United Nations.* By Research Section of the Department of Public Information, United Nations. Lake Success, New York: United Nations Department of Public Information, 1947. Pp. 26.

This pamphlet supplies the names of the members of the United Nations and describes



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Each of these is shown with relation to its subsidiary committees and commissions.

*Buying Your Own Life Insurance.* By Maxwell S. Stewart. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 134. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1947. Pp. 32. 20 cents.

The author presents a number of arguments aimed at proving the advantages of savings bank life insurance over regular insurance. He states that the chief weakness of savings bank life insurance arises from the source of its greatest strength—the lack of a sales organization. Yet an agent, a payroll deduction plan, or some other device is necessary to compel working men to provide for their families' protection. Otherwise they fail to take advantage of this reasonable over-the-counter insurance.

#### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

*The Development of Social Thought.* By Emory S. Bogardus. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1947. Pp. 574. \$4.00.

A textbook designed as an introduction to the field of social thought for college students.

*The Abuse of Learning: The Failure of the German University.* By Frederic Lilge. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. 184. \$2.75.

A scholarly analysis of the failures of German higher education.

*A Survey of Western Civilization.* By Harry Elmer Barnes. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1947. Pp. 959. \$5.50.

A college text for a survey of political and social institutions from the Stone Age to the Atomic Epoch.

*An Introduction to the History of Sociology.* Edited by Harry Elmer Barnes. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1948. Pp. 960. \$10.00.

A collaborative work on the history of socio-

logical thought from the ancient Near East to our own day.

*Journey Toward the Sunlight.* By Stanley Walker. New York: The Caribbean Library, 1947. Pp. 226. Illustrated. \$2.75.

An interpretative study of the Dominican Republic and its people.

*Old World Lands.* By Harlan H. Barrows, Edith Putnam Parker, and Clarence Woodrow Sorensen. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1947. Pp. 346. Illustrated. \$2.88.

The last of a series of three textbooks to be used for a unified course in elementary geography.

*Sexual Behavior in the Human Male.* By Alfred C. Kinsey, Wardell B. Pomeroy, and Clyde E. Martin. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company, 1948. Pp. 804.

A study to determine the sex activities of the human male.

*F. D. R.: His Personal Letters.* Edited by Elliott Roosevelt. New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1947. Pp. 543. \$5.00.

This volume covers the period from 1887, at the age of five, to 1904, when F. D. R. was graduated from Harvard.

*Japan's Influence on American Naval Power, 1897-1917.* By Outten Jones Clinard. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1947. Pp. 235. \$3.75.

An analysis of the national strategy of the United States in the Pacific and of the development of American naval policy under that influence.

*Finland and World War II, 1939-1944.* Edited by John H. Wuorinen. New York: The Ronald Press, 1948. Pp. 228. \$3.50.

Presents the Finnish side of the story of how Finland became involved in the war, and how they carried on the war.

*England: A History of the Homeland.* By Henry Hamilton. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1948. Pp. 597. Illustrated. \$6.00.

Stresses how man lived, worked, and thought rather than the record of statecraft and power politics.

*Martha, Daughter of Virginia.* By Marguerite Vance. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1947. Pp. 190. Illustrated. \$2.50.

A story of Martha Washington for children.